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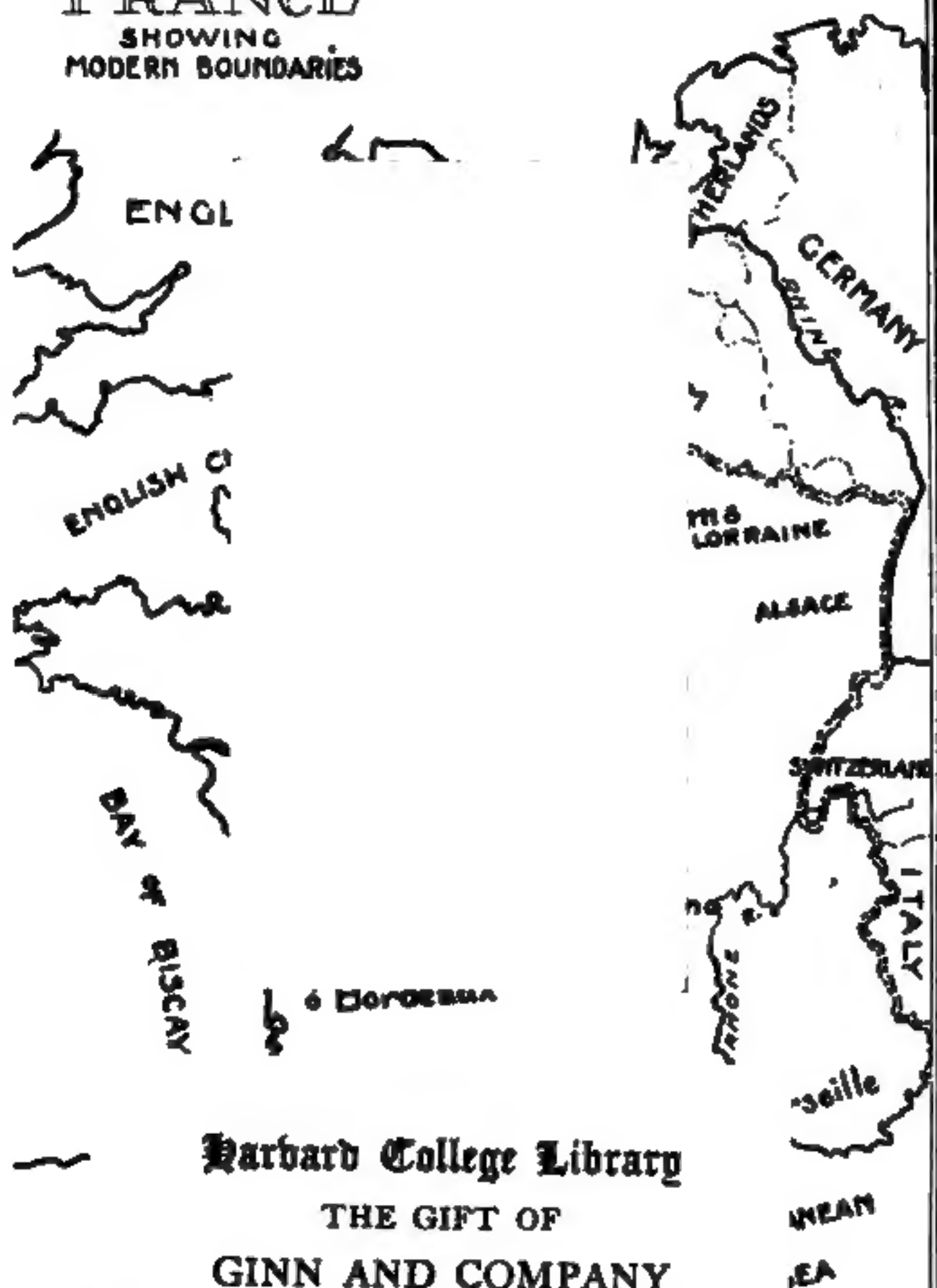
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PATHWAYS

OF

EUROPEAN PEOPLES

**AN OUTLINE STORY OF EUROPEAN NATIONS
THAT FORM THE CHIEF BACKGROUND OF
AMERICAN CIVILIZATION**

BY

BERTHA B. AND ERNEST COBB

**Authors of Arlo, Clematis, Anita, Busy Builder's Book
Hand in Hand with Father Time, Garden Steps,
The Hen at Work.**

OUTLINE MAPS BY

EDWIN C. LEONARD, JR.

**Illustrated with many photographs of unusual European
views.**

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MARCH 17, 1927

WE AFFECTIONATELY INSCRIBE
this book to our cousin, STANWOOD COBB, of Washington,
D. C., a leader in progressive education, who labors to
make the pathways of learning bright and happy.

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PREFACE

THANKS are due to many kind friends for their help in building the material of this book. So many people have read over and tested these pages that it is impossible to remember and name them all.

To Miss Lena Cushing, of Framingham, Mass., and her teachers, who devoted their classes for an extended period in working out our problems, special gratitude must be paid.

Another friend who deserves our kindest thanks is Superintendent Hector Belisle, of Fall River, Mass., who reviewed the text from the standpoint of one with long experience in teaching history to young people. He paid special attention to those periods where religious conflicts became the dominant factors in historic movements.

When the manuscript was finally ready

for the press, unusual good fortune fell upon us.

All writers of history tremble at putting out a book, for fear, in spite of all care, some mistakes have been made, some faults in selection and combination of historical matter committed.

It happened that the finished manuscript for PATHWAYS came into the hands of George Haven Putnam, of New York. He became interested, and offered to read it for a critical review.

His generous offer was carried out with infinite pains. A few sheets at a time, the pages came back from his desk, filled with suggestions, notes and fresh material to be considered.

Money could not have bought a service like this. An author of historical works himself, George Haven Putnam has lived through many of the European events we read about. He combined in this task the accomplished historian, the experienced editor, and the observer over many, many, momentous years.

When Maximilian attacked Mexico, during our civil war, he was one of those who wondered whether he should be sent with the Union Army, to drive him out.

When Prussia helped Italy to win Venice back from Austria, in 1866, Mr. Putnam was eagerly watching events from America. When Prussia overwhelmed France, in 1870, he took an active personal interest.

As a writer and publisher, Mr. Putnam has been a keen student of human events of all ages. His aid in giving accuracy and balance to the pages of this book lends us confidence in placing **PATHWAYS** before a critical public.

HISTORY REPEATS ITSELF

History repeats itself. Events taking place today are similar to events which have taken place many times before in the history of mankind.

The results of those movements we see about us are also going to be much like the results of similar movements, which have evolved frequently during the ages since man began his struggle here on earth.

A knowledge of history, a vision of the human races, as they have lived through various epochs, will give us a fresh comprehension of our own times.

If we can understand the causes and effects of important events in ages gone by, we can also understand how movements now going forward are likely to end. Such a vision would make life happier and better for all men.

Thousands, however, read history, and never get a clear picture of those sweeping movements of mankind which have brought great changes on earth. Details, dates, names, places, battles, minor events of all sorts, fill so many pages that the larger view is lost.

The purpose of **PATHWAYS** is to tell the story of a leading group of European nations in such a way that the reader's mind can move rapidly from one event to another, free from a heavy burden of general information, such as is presented in most historical books.

It has been the purpose of the author to set down the most important causes and results of all great movements which have made Greece, Italy, France, and Germany, what they are today.

The life story of these nations makes up the life story of continental Europe, for they have been the chief actors on that broad stage.

Our daily life here in America owes much to these European nations, and we

shall never see light upon our own paths until we have a clear view of the pathways that have been trodden in past years by the people of Europe. It is in the hope of making that view clear to the thoughtful reader that this book has been written.

GREECE

ANCIENT GREECE

GREECE, a little country that lies near the eastern end of the Mediterranean sea, has been of great importance in history.

The Greek people were civilized and educated three thousand years ago. They were intelligent and curious. They also loved new things, so they tried new forms of government, and ways of life, that have guided other people, in other countries, during nearly three thousand years.

The Greeks were naturally simple in their tastes, moderate in their desires for wealth, and ambitious to excel in those arts which make life truly happy and worth living.

Greek people spent much time in caring for their bodies, to make them strong and beautiful. They studied music, and painting, and sculpture, and public speaking. They also loved poetry and drama. So great was their love for these things, and so perfect was their taste, that no people have ever equalled the Greeks in works of art.

Ancient Greece was never a single nation, as it is now. Today it has one king, and a group of men chosen to advise him. Three thousand years ago Greece was dotted here and there with small cities, and each city ruled itself.

Each Greek city-state built a wall near its center for protection. Outside this wall lay the farms and orchards, with cottages for slaves and workmen. When an enemy came, they all could gather and hide behind the protecting wall.

Although they were of the same race, and were often related to each other, the people in these different cities were never at peace. If one city grew and prospered,

some other city would attack it and try to stop it from becoming too strong.

The Greeks all loved their home cities, and were always ready to die for them. They were just as ready to attack another city nearby, never stopping to think that by doing this they kept the Greek people weak and helpless.

The history of Ancient Greece is the history of a number of independent city-states wearing each other out with their never-ending disputes and wars, arising from rivalry, jealousy and hatred.

Two cities were so important in the history of the Grecian people that, if we know their story, we shall understand the history of Greece in ancient times. They were Sparta and Athens.

SPARTA

SPARTA occupied a deep valley, thirty miles from the sea, in the southern part of Greece. The city lay among mountains, so rough and so impassible that few enemies dared attack her. Had Sparta wished to live in peace, her situation would have made her safe.

The earliest records of Sparta show that about 800 B. C. she already had a constitution. Under this constitution she was to be governed by two kings, with a group of about forty prominent citizens to advise them. These kings had little real power, and, while Sparta was a leading city in Greece, she was ruled by a group of aristocrats.

When the Spartans conquered their secluded valleys they drove the native people out, and let them live and work on the land beyond the city walls.

These native people were half free and half enslaved. They might live, each on his own little farm, but all had to pay heavy tribute to the Spartans.

Slaves in great numbers served both the Spartans and these half-free farmers. The slaves, mostly captured in war, were the property of the Spartan state, and were not owned by individuals.

Slaves performed all the common labor and were treated like cattle. Historians state that when the number of slaves grew too great for use or safety, some were killed, to keep the number what their rulers wished it to be.

The aristocrats who ruled Sparta were determined to keep all power over all the territory round them in their own hands. They trained their young men to march, to run, to fight, and to do everything that would make them bold and obedient soldiers.

The Spartan leaders were careful to keep the young men from study, and any mental training that would lead them to

think for themselves, because they might then revolt against the tyrants who ruled them.

Every boy was the property of the state. At birth, if not robust, the child was left alone in the forest to die. If strong he was given good care at home till he was seven. Then he left home and went into camp.

At camp all sat at a common public table. The kings themselves sat among the rest, and ate the same coarse fare.

Little did these fearless Spartan youths realize that they were being enslaved, body and mind, by their crafty masters. They won renown for their feats of strength. They were praised and flattered. So they lived on in the stupid content of ignorance, shut in from the growing world.

An Athenian who visited them declared that he no longer wondered why Spartans never feared death.

"I should rather die," he said, "than live such a life as this."

SPARTA BEGINS HER CONQUESTS

750 B. C.

WHAT is the use of a good army if you do not go to war? This must have been what Sparta thought as her army grew in strength.

Sparta did not need a large army for defense, because no one attacked her; the mountains were her chief defense.

Messenia, a beautiful and fertile land, lay just to the west of Sparta. The Spartans wanted this garden spot, and determined to possess it.

When a people wish war, an occasion for war always rises. Some dispute over the boundaries rose, about 750 B.C., and the Spartan army suddenly appeared upon the fair Messenian plains.

The Messenians were not trained to fight, and, when it was all over, the lovely

towns were in smoking ruins. Men, women, and children had died without mercy, and those left alive were made subject to their Spartan masters.

Hereafter these Messenians would have to till the Spartan lands, pay heavy tribute, and serve her in time of war.

The Messenians, while serving the Spartans as slaves, waited eagerly for a chance to strike back at their hated masters. After about fifty years the day came.

Enemies from beyond the mountains attacked Sparta, and neighbor states, hating her also, joined the Messenians in revolt.

But Sparta was too strong. Again she swept over Messenia with fire and sword. This time she reduced those who were left to a state of slavery. They served her humbly and in silence, but deep in their hearts was a hope that some day they might strike down the hated Spartans and be revenged.

So Sparta developed. First one city

and then another fell before her well-trained armies.

The other Greeks fought in crowds, which lacked order and discipline. Sparta drilled her men in companies, and each knew just what was to be done.

Her fame became so great that other states dreaded to meet Sparta in combat, and after two centuries, by 500 B. C., she ruled almost half the Peloponnesus, which is the southern part of the Grecian peninsula.

The other half of the Peloponnesus acknowledged her the leader and director of their fortunes.

SPARTA THE MILITARY HEAD OF GREECE

500 B. C.

SPARTA was now really the head of Greece. She had formed a great military league among her subject states, and those that stood in fear of her power. The Spartan league covered all southern Greece.

No Grecian city dared hope to overcome Sparta now, in a test of arms.

This leadership of Sparta, however, had little on which it could depend. She knew little of the broad principles of government. The plan she followed with Messenia was used with other neighboring cities.

The Spartan method in subduing a city was to overcome and kill the fighting men. The remaining inhabitants were made tributary to Sparta, and were placed

under Spartan governors, who kept their power by force of arms.

Each conquered city waited and longed for a day when it might rise in revolt against the tyrant masters.

Most Greeks respected temples and religious spots, but Sparta was ready to destroy even sacred places, as she proved in an attack on Argos.

Argos was an independent city which hoped to defend itself against the greedy Spartans; but in a fierce battle her army was overcome.

When they saw they were defeated, the men of Argos withdrew into a sacred grove for protection, for there they expected a safe retreat.

The Spartans surrounded the grove, set fire to it, and killed every man who tried to escape. Sparta was then sure that Argos could not attack her for many years, and she did not disturb herself much about the bitter hate that burned deep in the heart of every living member of that mistreated race.

THE SPARTAN INFLUENCE SPREADS

MANY Greek cities, just across the Aegean sea, on the shores of Asia Minor, were threatened just before 500 B. C., with destruction by Cyrus, the great Persian Lord. He was spreading his kingdom over all that land, and captured every city in his path.

These Greek cities across the little sea sent messengers to the Spartans.

"Help us with your splendid army," they begged, "for without your help we shall soon fall before the Persian tyrant."

But Sparta did not wish to help other Greek cities grow strong. She feared them less when they were weak. Secure, behind her mountains, she feared Cyrus, the Persian king, less than she feared the Greek cities whose hatred she had aroused.

"Oh yes," the Spartans answered, "we shall be glad to help you, just as soon as we can get an army ready to go."

The visitors returned gladly to tell the good news. The Spartans never arrived; but Cyrus did, and, one after another, he captured the little Greek cities along the Eastern shore of the Aegean sea.

When he was master of the eastern shore of the Aegean, the Persian king looked across at the rich cities of European Greece, on the western shore.

In 492 B. C. a great expedition was sent to capture them. It was wrecked at sea.

Two years later, in 490 B. C., another Persian attack was made. This time fortune favored the Persians, and the Greek cities nearest the coast trembled, as the great fleet drew near.

Again envoys appeared in Sparta, this time from Athens, a beautiful city north of Sparta, near the shore.

"A vast host is upon us. Without your aid we are lost. Help, in the name of Greece."

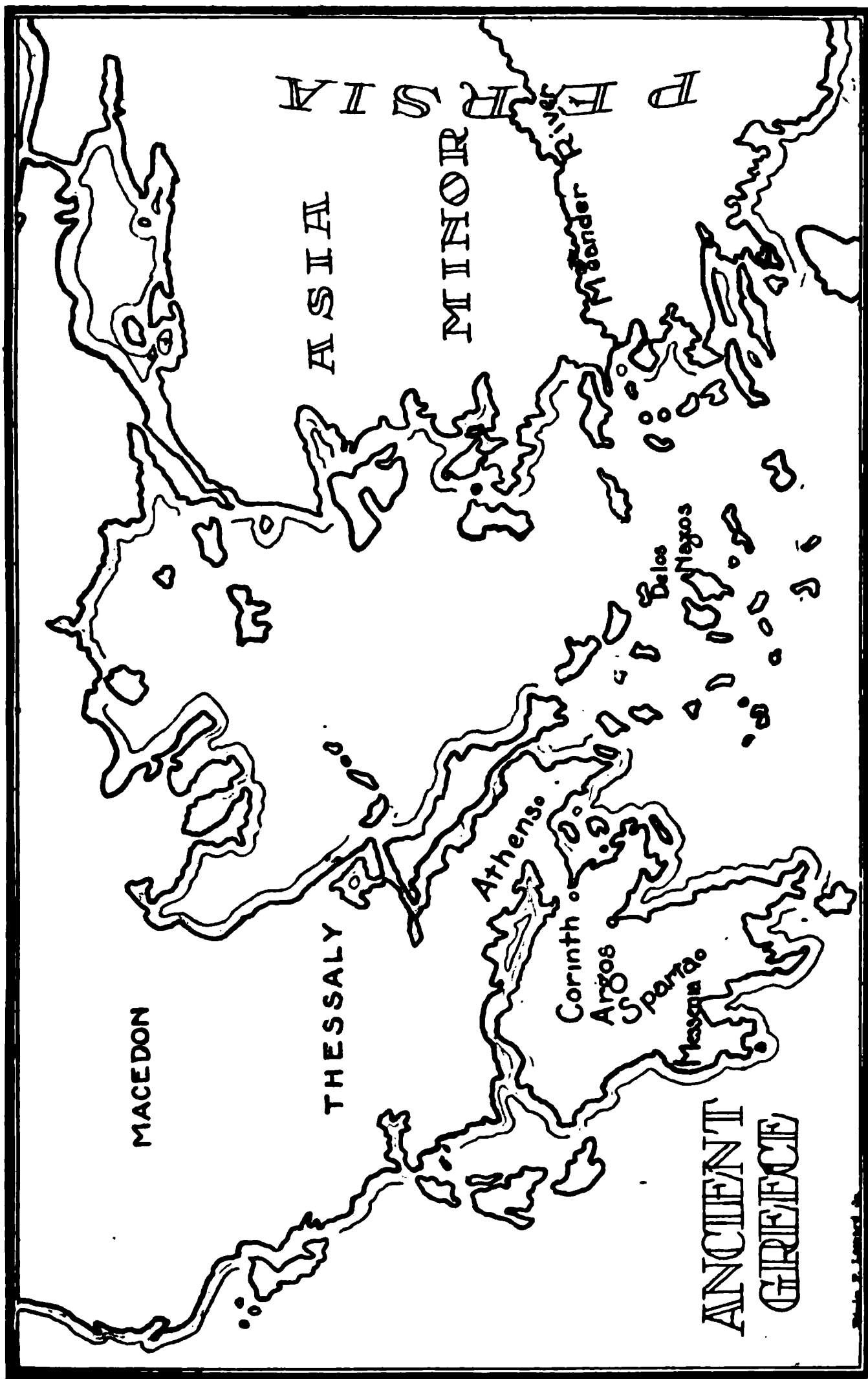
The Spartans listened. Behind their mountains they were secure. Athens was a strong, growing city. They feared her strength, and envied her growth. It would suit the Spartans better if she were attacked and crippled.

"Yes, yes," they answered. "We will give help, but we are just now waiting for the full of the moon. The days till then are sacred, and we could not march."

The Athenians hopefully went home again, but the Spartans meant to give them no help, so they had to meet the vast Persian army with their own people, almost unaided. How valiantly they fought, and how great a victory they won at Marathon, will be told in the story of Athens.

Now Sparta saw that she had betrayed, not a ruined Athens, but a proud, victorious Athens.

A third time the Persians planned to attack the Greeks. News came to Greece of the vast armies in preparation across the Aegean.



This time Sparta realized that even her state might be in danger; so she joined Athens, and other cities, in a council for defense.

The time had come at last, when Sparta's downtrodden neighbors saw their opportunity. Argos and Messenia feared Sparta more than they did the Persians, and hated her greedy, ugly rule. They promised to help, but, as Sparta had done so easily, they forgot their promises. They hoped to see her ruin.

Even now, had Sparta done as she agreed, Greece might have been saved. It was planned to meet the Persians at Thermopylae, a narrow pass in the northern part of Greece, and Sparta promised to have a strong army there.

When the Persians reached Thermopylae, the Spartan army was at home, and only a few picked soldiers had been sent to defend the pass.

These few Spartans fought bravely and died to the last man, rather than surrender, but a secret path was shown to the

Persians by some traitor. The Spartans were crushed, and the Persian hosts swept down upon the Greek cities.

Behind her rough mountains, Sparta watched with secret satisfaction the destruction of Athens, and other cities to the north, and made no move to help them.

The Persians, destroying city after city, kept moving south. As winter approached they did not all return to Persia, but camped a large army in Greece, and said that the next spring they would capture the whole Peloponnesus.

Now Sparta trembled for her very life. Alone she could not defend herself. At last she joined gladly enough with the other cities, and prepared to meet the Persian attack.

The Spartan king was made general of the united armies. All fought together for their lives, their families, and their homes, and the Greeks, next spring, defeated and destroyed the Persian army.

The Greeks were grateful to Sparta for

what she had done, and made Pausanias a Spartan general, commander of their great fleet of fighting ships, built mostly by Athens.

Soon after he was appointed, Pausanias was discovered plotting with Xerxes, who had become king of Persia. He planned to become ruler of Greece, as a petty tyrant under the Persian king.

Pausanias was punished, but the other Greek cities no longer dared trust Sparta. They formed a new league, called the Confederacy of Delos, and Sparta was left out.

Sparta prospered a few years longer, trying to find ways to stop the growth of her sister cities. Then a calamity fell upon her.

A great earthquake nearly destroyed the city, killing thousands of the Spartans. Instantly the slaves and neighbors saw their opportunity, and rushed upon their hated masters, hoping to end them all.

But the Spartans knew their danger and were ready. They were making

brave headway against the slaves when Messenia revolted.

Foes appeared on every side. In despair Sparta sent word to Athens.

"We are attacked on every side," she said. "If you do not help us quickly our city will be destroyed."

"It is a trick," said some wise Athenians. "Do not trust them."

"No," said others, "they helped us against the Persians, let us save them from destruction."

So they sent an army to help Sparta. When the Athenians arrived, Sparta was on the point of victory. She feared the Athenians, lest they, too, should turn against her, so she shut her gates.

Refused admission to the city, the Athenians had to return and take the long, hot march back again, weary and unrefreshed.

Thus once again the Spartans bitterly offended her neighbors of the north.

PELOPONNESIAN WAR

SPARTA BEGINS TO CRUMBLE 460 B. C.

FRIENDSHIP among the Greek cities was no longer possible. The flame of war, smouldering so long, blazed up, and Sparta found herself in the midst of a bitter contest, in 460 B. C.

Athens and the northern cities were now attacking Sparta and her unwilling allies. For fifteen years the war raged on, until both sides were exhausted, and a truce was signed, intended to last for thirty years.

Before the thirty-year truce was half gone, war broke out again. This time it was war to the death.

Each year Sparta sent out her armies to conquer and ravage the lovely fields and groves of the northern states. The furious enemies, not daring to meet her

in open combat, took shelter in their walled cities and fought there till the Spartan armies had retired.

Year by year the Spartan armies returned. Each year there was less for them to capture. Each year their ranks grew thinner and thinner.

Sparta's population shrank from ten thousand citizens to two thousand. It seemed as if the Greeks would kill each other until not a soldier was left.

At last, seeing that she could never win by her armies, once so famous, Sparta betrayed the rest of Greece into the hands of Persia for gold.

With Persian funds and Persian soldiers a fleet was built to meet the exhausted Athenians. Sparta conquered Athens in a terrible naval battle. There she captured four thousand Athenians and put them to death in cold blood.

This marked the end. Sparta had worked the ruin of her rivals, but in the same act she cut the stream of her own life.

Sparta lived in luxury a short time, on Persian gold, and on tribute forced from other cities. The severe and simple life she used to lead had made her strong. This life of luxury made her weak.

Gathering her last remaining strength, Athens, helped by Thebes and other cities, again attacked Sparta. Her neighbors, who hated her more bitterly than ever, made excuses, and left her to fight as best she could.

This attack, in 371 B. C., settled the fate of Sparta. She was defeated, crushed, and her leadership in Greece was over.

Sparta rose to glory, and had her fall in a brief period. By 500 B. C. she was a leader in Grecian affairs, and in a little more than one long life time her course was run and her power was gone. By 350 B. C. she had sunk from view, and was never known again as a great city.

Sparta tried to rule by the sword, and fell by the sword.

Sparta tried to conquer weaker nations by force, and rule them by force, but they

grew stronger as she grew weaker. She made no friends to stand by her, and at last the weaker nations, by joining against their common enemy, brought an end to the proud and hated Sparta.

ATHENS

ATHENS had a situation far different from that of Sparta. Instead of mountains, about her on every hand, she had the sea, the lovely blue Aegean, close beside her.

Her people could look across the sea to the islands that fringed the shores of Asia Minor. Her splendid harbor attracted ships from the ports of old and cultured cities in the East.

New people and new ideas were welcomed in Athens. The Athenians loved novelties of all kinds. They traveled much and entertained many travelers.

Besides this influence of interchange with other lands, the Athenians had a natural disposition to try new things. Changes were frequent and welcome in this remarkable city. Within two or three centuries, she tried several forms of

government, and finally developed the purest form of democracy the world had as yet seen.

The varied experience of the Athenians, with different ways of life and forms of government, make their history of unusual value to us today, because they did so many things that we are trying to do now.

The Athenians hoped to live under a form of government like the democracy we ourselves are trying to build. They planned education for every boy, as Americans are planning it today, for every boy and every girl.

The Athenians loved art, literature, and every attainment of culture. So greatly did they excel in all these things, that their works of art have served the world as models to this day.

THE LAWS OF SOLON

ABOUT 600 B. C

SOLON is the first great man to attract attention, as the facts of early Athenian history become definite.

At this time social conditions in the city were bad. At the top was a group of nobles. They owned most of the land and had all political power.

Below these nobles was a class of citizens, supposed to be free, but the laws, all made by the nobles, were unjust. If a citizen could not pay his debts his creditors might take him, and his wife and children, and sell them as slaves.

As the nobles owned most of the property, it was easy for them to act as tyrants over these poor citizens.

Below these citizens was, in every Greek city, a large body of slaves. Athens gained great wealth from her

slave trade. These slaves were often cultured and well born, captured in war, perhaps, or sold for debt.

Sometimes the slaves were treated kindly. Sometimes they were treated with terrible cruelty. The master could usually do with them as he chose.

The lower classes were suffering so greatly from bad treatment, when Solon became prominent in Athenian affairs, that they threatened to revolt. War, a frequent condition in Greece, made matters worse.

Solon warned his fellow nobles in Athens.

"If you allow all these slaves and poor citizens to become desperate," he said, "they will join our enemies against us and we shall be destroyed."

Facing this disaster, the Athenians placed all power in the hands of Solon. He proved great enough for the occasion.

Though a noble himself, Solon at once reformed the laws the nobles had made. He cancelled all debts. Those people

made slaves because they could not pay, he set free. After this no Athenian was ever enslaved because he could not pay his debts.

Solon gave himself up to his work with earnest self-sacrifice. He studied to improve life in Athens, and did much to teach the Athenians honesty and fair dealing.

The old laws had put to death all those caught stealing, but thieving grew more and more.

Solon decreed that those who stole should return twice what they had stolen. Then stealing became much less.

Solon said that every citizen should have a vote on some questions. This gave them small power, but the idea of giving all citizens a right to take part in government was a new and wonderful thing in the history of the world.

The power of Solon was so great that he could easily have become a despot. When his friends urged him to do so he smiled and said:

“Despotism may be a fine policy, but there is no way out of it.”

Solon refused all temptations to get power for himself, and set an example of pure and lofty morality for other great men, coming after him, to copy.

Through the wise laws he established, which have passed on, in one form or another, even to our own day, Solon exerted an influence on human affairs equalled by few other men.

PEISISTRATUS

PEISISTRATUS was a kinsman of Solon. He was bold, crafty, and ambitious. When Solon was away, visiting other cities, he planned to seize control of Athens and rule as he saw fit.

The Athenians were warned, but paid little attention to warnings, so they woke up one fine morning to find themselves in the grasp of a tyrant, who meant to rule as he chose, and to rule by force if necessary.

A tyrant is one who rules without the consent of the people. Sometimes tyrants are bad men who do great harm to those they rule. Some tyrants have been intelligent and eager to rule well. Peisistratus was determined to rule in his own way, and when the Athenians tried to drive him from the city, he raised an army and killed all who opposed him.

After he had made himself the master, however, Peisistratus was a wise and strong ruler. He changed few of Solon's laws, ruled justly, and was acceptable to Athens during a long life.

The people of Athens, during this long rule of a despot, slowly grew accustomed to being told what they must do in all things. When Peisistratus died, the Athenians had been under a tyrant so long, they hardly knew how to act.

Now the people of Athens had reason to regret the day they had carelessly allowed a tyrant to rule their city. Two sons fought for the throne of Peisistratus. Groups of citizens took sides. Athens was torn with quarrels, and deadly strife grew worse and worse, until at last the Athenians roused their manhood, and drove the family of tyrants from the city.

CLEISTHENES

ALL CITIZENS HAVE VOTING RIGHTS 500 B. C.

CLEISTHENES was the great leader who rose to help the Athenians regain their self-control. He began in 510 B. C. to continue the reform Solon had outlined ninety years before.

Cleisthenes greatly enlarged the democratic forms of government, giving to all citizens actual power in governing themselves.

Strangers who moved from one Greek city to another, had up to this time, never been admitted to citizenship. Cleisthenes thought this was wrong.

"If we welcome good men from other cities," he urged, "and let them become citizens, we shall make many new friends, who will bring their wealth and influence. From them we shall learn much that is of great value to our city."

This advice was taken, and strangers who wished to live in Athens were granted rights of citizenship at that time. In later years, when jealous factions rose again, this right was taken away. It was a great benefit to Athens while it was in force, and the people of Athens suffered much loss later on, when strangers were refused the right of citizenship.

Cleisthenes had a great ambition to teach the Athenians to rule themselves justly and well. He strengthened the democracy till it was firmly founded on rules that were well understood. Each citizen had a vote, and knew how to make use of it.

But Cleisthenes could not make the people of Athens work together. He urged them to unite, but jealous factions kept them apart. He begged them to show a brotherly spirit, but they suspected each other and would trust no one. Still, because of her great leaders, Solon, Peisistratus, and Cleisthenes, Athens had grown, by 500 B. C., into a brilliant, powerful city, a leader in northern Greece.

When the cities across the Aegean sea had begged Sparta for help, she refused, but, when they turned to Athens, she sent a strong navy to their aid.

After the Greek cities were captured, however, and king Darius of Persia made plans for an expedition to European Greece, he said he should punish Athens for her attack upon him.

"Tell the Athenians," he said, "that when we leave her shores, the only sign of life upon the place where their city stands will be the track of Persian feet".

THE BATTLE OF MARATHON

490 B. C.

WHEN Athens heard of the vast army, ready to attack, her people trembled, and sent out calls for help. Sparta, as we have seen, refused.

The first Persian attack, in 492 B. C. failed, because of a great storm at sea. The second, two years later, filled all Greece with dread.

How should her few stand against the millions of Persia? As Sparta would not help, Greece must depend upon Athens to be her champion.

The vast Persian fleet approached the shores of Greece at Marathon, twenty miles from the gates of Athens. Marathon was a small plain, surrounded by hills.

So at Marathon the Athenians gathered to defend their beloved city. When the

Persian soldiers landed on the shore, the Greeks rushed upon them with desperate courage.

Never before had the Persians met fighters like these Athenians. The Persians were hired to fight, and many of their soldiers were slaves. But most of the Athenian soldiers were free men, fighting for their lives, and for all that they loved.

The Persians fought valiantly till they saw that the day was lost. Then they fled to their boats and sailed away. Athens, almost alone, had conquered the most dreaded army in the world.

With the inspiration of this great victory, Athens became a new city. The hope of Cleisthenes that his people might work together for their common good, was now fulfilled. Fear of a dreaded foe had made them forget their petty quarrels and jealousies. Their victory at Marathon made them remember that Athens was a glorious city and that they were Athenians.

History affords no better example of blessings that may come in strange disguises to people and to nations. There is no inspiration so high as the victory that conquers fear.

After this no enterprise could daunt their courage. No odds were too great for them to overcome. The Athenians planned wonderful things, and succeeded wonderfully, because they threw themselves without reserve and with a single aim, into whatever they resolved to do.

Courtesy Raymond & Whitcomb

THE TEMPLE OF ZEUS. ATHENS

THEMISTOCLES

THEMISTOCLES was the leader who arose with the new Athens. Themistocles believed that, in the future, Athens must have a strong navy.

“See our harbor, and our port. That is a great gift, if we make use of it,” he urged. “Let us build ships, and extend our walls, so we can move back and forth from the ships to the city in safety.”

To carry out his plans they must build walls several miles in length, and also go to great effort and expense for their ships. Many opposed this plan, but the eloquence of Themistocles won the day, and soon a fleet of ships was growing in the harbor port of Athens.

As the fleet developed, and dangers seemed distant, the Athenians found fresh cause for disputes. Their peace

and good will seemed almost at an end, when a new alarm made them join hands in friendship once more against a common foe.

In Persia, King Darius, who planned the attack at Marathon, had died. Xerxes was now King of Persia. Xerxes decided to avenge the defeat of Marathon. He raised an army so great that even Sparta, in her mountain retreat, felt afraid.

The Greek cities, which had been fighting each other, ceased their quarrels and joined in a general plan of defense.

"Now," said Themistocles, "let us finish our fleet, and get our ships all ready."

No one opposed him. The Athenians worked night and day to get prepared.

In 480 B. C., just ten years after the battle of Marathon, the blow came.

Sparta, as the first military city in the league, was in command. The Spartans said that they would defend the most important pass, at Thermopylae, in

northern Greece, while other cities were given different posts.

As we saw in reading her story, Sparta betrayed the trust. She had only a few soldiers on duty. These few fought to the death, but a secret path was made known to the Persians, and the vast hordes broke through.

The Athenians fought bravely to protect their homes, but it was hopeless. The Persians broke down their defenses and stormed the city.

The Athenians, thanking their gods, and the wise Themistocles, crowded upon their ships and put to sea, to watch the smoke and flames above their burning city.

Themistocles gathered the leaders in haste.

“The Persians depend upon their fleet to protect their army here, and guard its passage home. If we can destroy the fleet at once it will be a heavy blow to their campaign.”

Other leaders were afraid, and objected

to this bold plan, but the Athenians had great confidence in Themistocles. His will prevailed.

The Persian fleet was found near Salamis, an island not far from Athens. There the Greeks, for once acting under a single head, crushed the Persian fleet in a magnificent victory.

Salamis, even more than Marathon, became a glorious memory to their native land.

Xerxes, his fleet now crippled, hastened home, leaving a large army to ravage Greece. Many Greek cities, already governed by despots, joined despotic Persia, but neither bribes nor promises could move democratic Athens.

Through a long, tragic winter the Athenians kept brave hearts, and at Plataea, the following Spring, Athens gathered an army from a league of cities, including Sparta, and destroyed the Persian invaders.

Persia never again attacked European Greece. The Athenians, by their fleet,

under the wonderful leadership of Themistocles, had saved the people of their city, and a democracy, whose influence is felt to this day, was developed to bear more and richer fruit.

The naval policy of Themistocles had proved such a great success that it was now developed with more intense energy than ever, and that great man held complete sway over Athenian fortunes.

Themistocles developed the harbor, and, to provide a safe way from the city to the ships, he completed the long walls to the water front.

Sparta, still safe in her mountains, and secretly glad that Athens was burned, tried to stop these plans, but Themistocles was too quick for Spartan wits. He rapidly rebuilt Athens, more beautiful than before, and she soon took a leading place once more among the cities of Greece.

THE CONFEDERACY OF DELOS

470 B. C.

THE democratic life of Athens brought one very important result: it made the Athenians more generous and kind to other cities. Sparta, ruled by despots, could not bear to see other cities flourish; and did her best to ruin them. Athens, on the other hand was not only willing to let them alone, but even to help them.

After the Persians were defeated, and Athens saw that Sparta really wished her downfall, she ended the agreement between them and planned to form a new league, from which Sparta should be left out.

The cities across the Aegean sea now hoped to free themselves from the rule of Persia. They asked Athens to help them.

"Yes," replied the Athenians. "Let

us form a new league. Let us all send delegates to meet at Delos. On that quiet island we can arrange our affairs."

They all agreed, so a group of delegates, representing many Greek cities around the shores of the Aegean sea, met on the island of Delos, halfway across from Athens to the shore of Asia Minor.

Aristides, a brilliant, honest, courteous Athenian, led the discussion, and was made the president of the league, which was called the Confederacy of Delos.

The delegates agreed to meet each year at Delos to discuss new plans and vote on them. Each city was to have one vote. Each city was to contribute ships and men according to its size and wealth. Athens was to be the leading city, and Aristides the man in charge.

Aristides directed affairs with such courtesy, and skill, and honesty, that all the cities were content with his plans, and, while he directed matters, the Confederacy of Delos was a great success.

Athens placed a powerful fleet upon

the Aegean sea. One by one the Persian garrisons were overcome, and the Greek cities were again set free.

Seeing the good result of the league, one city after another asked to join, till it spread up to the shores of the Black Sea. Three hundred cities became members of the Confederacy of Delos.



THE ATHENIAN EMPIRE

The story of how this Confederacy of Delos grew into a despotic empire is both interesting and important, because events like this take place often in the world today, though people do not always realize it.

As the coast of Asia Minor became freed once more from the Persians, and the fear of another invasion became less and less, the cities took less interest in plans for defense.

The powerful Athenian fleet cruised the waters of the Aegean sea. There was no fleet to dread. It was a good deal of trouble to keep sending men and ships to join in a navy that had no one to fight.

Some cities said they would rather contribute money than ships and men. This suited Athens.

“We will keep up the fleet and the

army," she said, "if you will contribute your share of the expenses."

As more and more cities stopped sending delegates to the Conference, and agreed to pay money each year, Athens was well pleased. She felt able and willing to direct matters herself. The great sums they paid in made her rich and powerful.

Naxos, a city in this league, at last decided to withdraw from membership, and sent neither money, ships, nor men.

"Where are your contributions?" asked the Athenians.

"We have decided to withdraw from the Confederacy of Delos," the people of Naxos replied.

"We have paid tribute for ten years. There is now no foe to fight. What are you doing with all the money you collect?"

"That is none of your business," replied the Athenians. "We agreed to keep enemies away from the Aegean sea. You agreed to help pay the cost of this protection. We are keeping our agreement

so well that no foe dares appear. Now you keep your agreement and pay up, or you will wish you had."

But Naxos still persisted in her plan to withdraw from the league. Then Athens attacked her, killed many of her leading men, destroyed all her defenses, and made her promise to pay her share every year for the general expenses.

Naxos was not taken back into the league. She lost her vote, but had to pay her tribute each year as a mere subject city of Athens.

Other cities now became suspicious of Athens. What was she doing with all this money? The delegates at the annual conference were very few. These dissatisfied cities tried to withdraw, as Naxos had done.

Every time a city tried to withdraw, Athens attacked it, made it pay up, and refused it any further vote in the league. City after city fell into her power.

The meetings of the congress of the Confederacy of Delos had ceased alto-

gether by 450 B. C. Two or three cities were all that remained independent. The rest were gathered under the control of a tyrant city.

This confederacy had now become the Athenian Empire. Strangely enough that democratic city, through the unwillingness of other cities to attend faithfully to their duties in the league, found herself mistress of a great Empire.

THE PRISON OF SOCRATES

Socrates, a Greek philosopher, was condemned to drink poison, because he aroused the anger of powerful nobles. He was kept in this prison till his death.

THE AGE OF PERICLES

ABOUT 475 TO 450 B. C.

A MARVELOUS growth of the arts now flourished in Athens. Her citizens were free. Her slaves performed all labor. Her income from mines, trades, and tribute was so great that every citizen of intelligence could pursue any vocation he chose, supported well by the public funds.

Pericles was the great man, who left his name stamped so deeply upon Athenian life, that the period is called the age of Pericles.

Pericles loved the arts, and gave rich rewards from public funds to painters, sculptors, builders, poets, playwrights, orators, and all who could contribute to the cultivated pleasure of the city.

The tribute money, levied once to

secure protection from Persia, was now used freely to make Athens a spot of enchanting beauty. She did her part in keeping the Aegean safe, and she claimed the right to use the tribute money as she chose.

During this brief period, of hardly twenty years, wonderful temples, statues, paintings, works of carving, and art of every kind were produced. Poetry and oratory rose to heights equalled hardly ever in the history of the world.

The Athenian citizens were rich and free from labor. One would suppose this to be the most fortunate, the happiest city in the world. But in the midst of this good fortune, if an Athenian had been asked the question: "Are you serving others, or making others serve you?" he must have answered, "We are making others serve us."

THE ATHENIAN EMPIRE LEADS TO WAR

461 B. C.

THE story of Sparta ends in destruction because she always tried to make others serve her. Athens, while she was serving others, and helping other cities, grew and prospered. When she found pleasure in her ease and comfort, and made others subject to her, jealousy and hatred took the place of respect and gratitude.

As Athens was completing her empire, Sparta, more jealous than ever, saw the opportunity to win over many cities that Athens held forcibly beneath her rule.

When Athens saw what Sparta was trying to do, war was declared. Battle followed battle, until the wars covered

the whole Peloponnesus, and these were called the Peloponnesian wars.

Enemies who had been awaiting their chance, now attacked Athens on every side. Persia sent an army against her. Egypt also joined in the attack. Sparta rejoiced to see the great odds against her rival.

No city ever fought more brilliantly and more bravely than did Athens, against her many foes. Even the great Athens could not hold out. One disaster followed another. The Peloponnesian war finally left her in 400 B. C. a sacked and ruined city. Never again did Athens raise her head as a power in ancient Greece.

Athens had a brief and glorious existence. It is said that she brought forth more great men in the seventy years of her leadership than all the world has ever produced in a period as short as that.

Athens proved the possibilities of democracy, showing its weakness and its strength.

She left a rich heritage of government and art to succeeding generations.

For centuries to come men will seek the history of Athens to gain light upon the path which all civilization must tread.

PIRAEUS. THE HARBOR PORT OF ATHENS

PHILIP AND ALEXANDER

338 B. C.

WHEN Athens and Sparta had finally managed to destroy each other, and also the cities that shared their fortunes, there was anarchy in Greece. No government strong enough to afford protection or control remained.

North of Greece lay Macedonia, and from this land came the power to wield the fragments of Greece into a new empire.

Philip of Macedonia was crafty, ambitious, and knew how to manage men. He was determined to secure the power that Sparta and Athens had striven for in vain.

Step by step Philip got ready for the conquest. There were no councils to consult, no votes to be taken, no jealous factions in his land. He was sole

monarch; his rule was single; and what he wished he ordered to have done.

When his spies and messengers said that all was ready, Philip invaded Greece. He easily overcame all who opposed him, and punished without mercy those who disobeyed his command.

Philip had learned much, however, from the history of cities like Sparta.

"If you will obey me," he said to the people he conquered, "I will treat you well. You shall not be made slaves, but will be happier, and better off, under my rule, than you have been before."

The people had felt his power, and knew they must obey or die; so they obeyed, and soon the Greek cities were unified under a stern, but generous rule, and were, as Philip had promised, happier and better off than they had been before.

Philip lived only a year or two after the conquest of Greece. He left his kingdom, his army, and his great ambition, to his son Alexander.

Alexander the Great, then only a

young man, finished the work of Philip in Greece, and when his rule in that country was well organized, he determined to spread his kingdom to the east.

Now Persia was to see an army of Greeks invade her country. The army of Alexander was hardly a tenth as great as that sent forth by Xerxes to invade Greece, but every man was a soldier, trained to his work.

When the Persians gathered a great army at Issus, Alexander had his men, armed with long heavy spears, stand close together in a wedge-shaped formation. The Persians could not break that living wall of spears, which was called the Macedonian phalanx. They fought a while and then fled.

At Arbela, the Persians again mustered vast forces, of nearly a million men, to crush the phalanx of Alexander, but the result was the same. Thousands died in battle; the rest were scattered in flight.

After this, no great resistance was

offered to Alexander, and his wonderful army of Greeks. Province after province was overcome.

For thirteen years Alexander continued to spread his rule over the vast land of southern Asia. He marched three thousand miles into the east, over the known kingdoms of the earth, and brought all beneath his rule.

Alexander died, still a young man, at Babylon. Those Greeks who marched with him cared little about life in eastern lands. Just as the Persians who followed Xerxes into Greece at his command, returned to their own land as soon as they could, so the Greeks, who had followed the victorious Alexander, returned again to Greece, after his death, and left the eastern peoples to their own ways of life.

In Greece a hundred petty rulers sprang up to claim the power of Alexander, and all was jealousy and strife once more. This lasted nearly a hundred years. Then an invasion, even

more dreaded than that of the Persians under Xerxes, in 480 B. C., once more made the Greeks join hands for self-protection.

INVASION OF THE GAULS

ACHAEAN LEAGUE 250 B. C.

THE Gauls, a barbarous, bold, and persistent race, from those lands where France and Germany now lie, had for many years been moving down into Italy and the warm, sunny lands near the Mediterranean Sea.

About 250 B. C. the Greeks realized that if they did not all join hands in defence, they would all be swept away before this tribe of barbarians, that spared no one in its path.

Little Achaea, a city on the Gulf of Corinth, was then the leader of a small league of cities round about her. Rapidly this league grew, just as the Confederacy of Delos had grown two hundred years before.

The Achaean League was democratic in form, managed by a president and a

secretary, with a council of ten. Twice a year a general assembly met to decide important policies and questions of state.

While the fear of the Gauls kept the Greeks close behind their walls, they met regularly in conference, and the League flourished, but when the tide of Gauls flowed on, over into the fertile lands of Asia Minor, where there was room enough for all, the Greek cities drew apart, jealousy crept in, and strife began.

The Achaean League broke up, just as the Confederacy of Delos had broken, when fear of invasion had passed. It was born in mutual service, and destroyed through jealousy and greed.

After this there was no power in Greece to repel an invader. Each city sought its own ends, and the needs of the Greek nation were forgotten.

Across the Adriatic sea was a new power that had seen the discord in Greece, and wanted the Greek lands, as well as the Greek trade, for her own development. This power was Rome.

GREECE A ROMAN PROVINCE

146 B. C.

ROME, the new power across the Adriatic, now began to take charge of Grecian affairs. City after city was attacked, and reduced to Roman rule by fire, and sword, and slavery.

Had the Greeks been willing to live as subjects of Rome, they might have prospered far more than they did while fighting among themselves.

But the Greeks could not bear life with masters of any other nation above them. The Roman government was the best that then existed, much better than that provided in Greece herself. Still, the Roman rule placed them in servitude, and the Greeks could not bear servitude.

The spirit of revolt spread abroad, and the Greeks revolted against Rome. It

was in vain; the Roman soldiers were the best fighters in the world.

To punish these rebels, Rome brought Greece so low that to this day she has remained poor and weak among the nations.

As a Roman province Greece had a period of peace such as she had never known in all her history. The Greeks were, in general, well governed. Schools were encouraged, and her scholars were treated with respect. But she was only a subject state, a humble province.

AJAX WITH HIS WONDERFUL HELMET

THE CHRISTIAN ERA

CHRISTIANITY brought a new hope and a new vision to the Greeks. They loved new ideas always, and here was a new form of thought and teaching. They were downtrodden and lonely, and here was brotherhood and consolation. They were slaves of a despotic power, and here was promise of a freedom no despot could ever enchain. They had looked back with regret and forward with gloom, and here were promises of a future, for those who would believe, brighter than imagination could devise.

The Greeks, by their habit of thought, were ready for this religion of service and democracy. Through the terrible centuries to come it was to bind them together, and save them from complete extinction, which, without this common tie, must have been their fate.

The great Roman empire flourished during more than four centuries, and ruled Greece as a province. Then the Roman empire began to decay. Bands of barbarians from the north threatened the city of Rome itself, so Constantine, then the Roman emperor, in 330 A. D., moved his capital into Greece.

Byzantium, a great city on the Bosphorus, at the entrance of the Black Sea, was chosen as the new capital, in place of Rome. Constantine, in honor of himself, called it Constantinople.

The Roman emperors, when they came to Greece to rule in Constantinople, planned to spread the Roman customs, laws, and language throughout Greece.

Greek customs and language, however, were so useful and beautiful, that, where the Roman and Greeks came in contact, the Romans often adopted the Greek customs, and took pleasure in learning their language.

The Greeks had to obey, and use the Roman laws, but Greece, bowed as she

was before Roman power, lost few of her national attributes, and even Constantinople remained a Greek city.

INVASION BY GOTHs AND HUNS

400 A. D.

THE Goths, a warlike tribe that lived north of the Danube, feared invasion by the Huns, a still more savage race, in western Asia. About the year 375, the Goths began moving across the Danube into the northern regions of Greece.

"Stop!" ordered the Romans, "This is our province. You cannot get in here."

"But," replied the Goths, "we must move somewhere, for behind us are terrible people, the Huns, who will kill us all if we remain."

Had the Romans found a way to make friends with these Goths, they might have joined forces to save themselves from the Huns, but this was not to be.

After the Goths and the Romans had

been fighting for some years, and thousands of the best soldiers on both sides had been killed, the Huns themselves appeared on the Danube. With their best soldiers dead, the Romans and Goths could not resist.

Greece, which had suffered greatly from the Goths, was now to suffer twice as much from the Huns.

Attila, the leader of these Huns, was one of the most terrible leaders in history. He left smoking ruins and wasted fields wherever he went. He killed men, women, and children without mercy.

For another century, Greece became a scene of battle and desolation. Great spaces were left uninhabited. Roads were neglected, and improvements left in ruins. Finally, when the savage Huns, who cared only to conquer and kill, receded, Greece was but a skeleton.

SLAVONIAN INVASION

500

By the year 476, when the western part of the Roman Empire was breaking to pieces, another race, seeing that Rome could no longer defend her provinces, and longing for the warm and fertile fields of Greece, started to move in.

These newcomers were Slavonians. They had moved gradually from the vast regions where Russia now lies. Gradually they worked down into Greece, unchecked by any armies, till they came to the walled cities, in the mountain regions of the south.

The Slavonians wished for peaceful homes, not for fighting, and settled on the empty lands. The migration continued for about four centuries. Then the great Slavonian horde moved off again, gradually, as they had come.

THE CRUSADERS FROM THE WEST OVERRUN GREECE

1100

ABOUT the year 1100, the people of England, France, and Italy, felt a longing for adventure. A religious revival swept over these countries.

Thousands of these excited people joined in bands of crusaders, or pilgrims, to go into Palestine and rescue the holy places of Bible history from the Turks, who then ruled over this land.

Starting out from western Europe, these bands found their way eastward along the Mediterranean sea. Some sailed from southern ports directly to the shores of Asia Minor, where they battled with the Turks for possession of the holy places. Others marched along the shore.

In marching round the shores, many

of these crusaders were greatly delighted with Greece.

“Whoever dreamed of such a wonderful land!” they cried, “Such blue skies, such green fields, such grapes and wine! This is an adventure worth while. Let us capture these cities. They are worth more than Palestine.”

Poor Greece! Her cities had been spared by the Slavonians, and were struggling back to a condition of small prosperity. Now Thebes, Athens, Corinth, and many smaller cities, fell before these western conquerors, and were sacked with great cruelty.

The Greeks found these Crusaders, who declared their pilgrimage was for the sake of their religion, not a bit less cruel and greedy than the Goths and Huns had been.

At last Constantinople itself was captured, nearly destroyed by fire, and ruled till about 1450 by these western princes.

The “Dukedom of Athens,” during

this period, is like a dream to the reader of Greek history. Athens, the resort of the gayest knights of those ages, saw games of chivalry, tilts, jousts, tournaments, and ceremonies of knighthood, rehearsed among her classic ruins.

The Crusaders strove to teach the Greeks their customs and their language, which they thought to be the best in the world for all peoples.

These gay cavaliers, basking in the sunshine of Greece, planned to make it once more the jewel in the crown of nations, but before long they passed out of her history, as the Goths and Huns and Romans and Slavonians had passed.

The Crusaders left only a few ruined castles, here and there, on the hilltops of Greece, which contrast strangely with the ruins of ancient times.

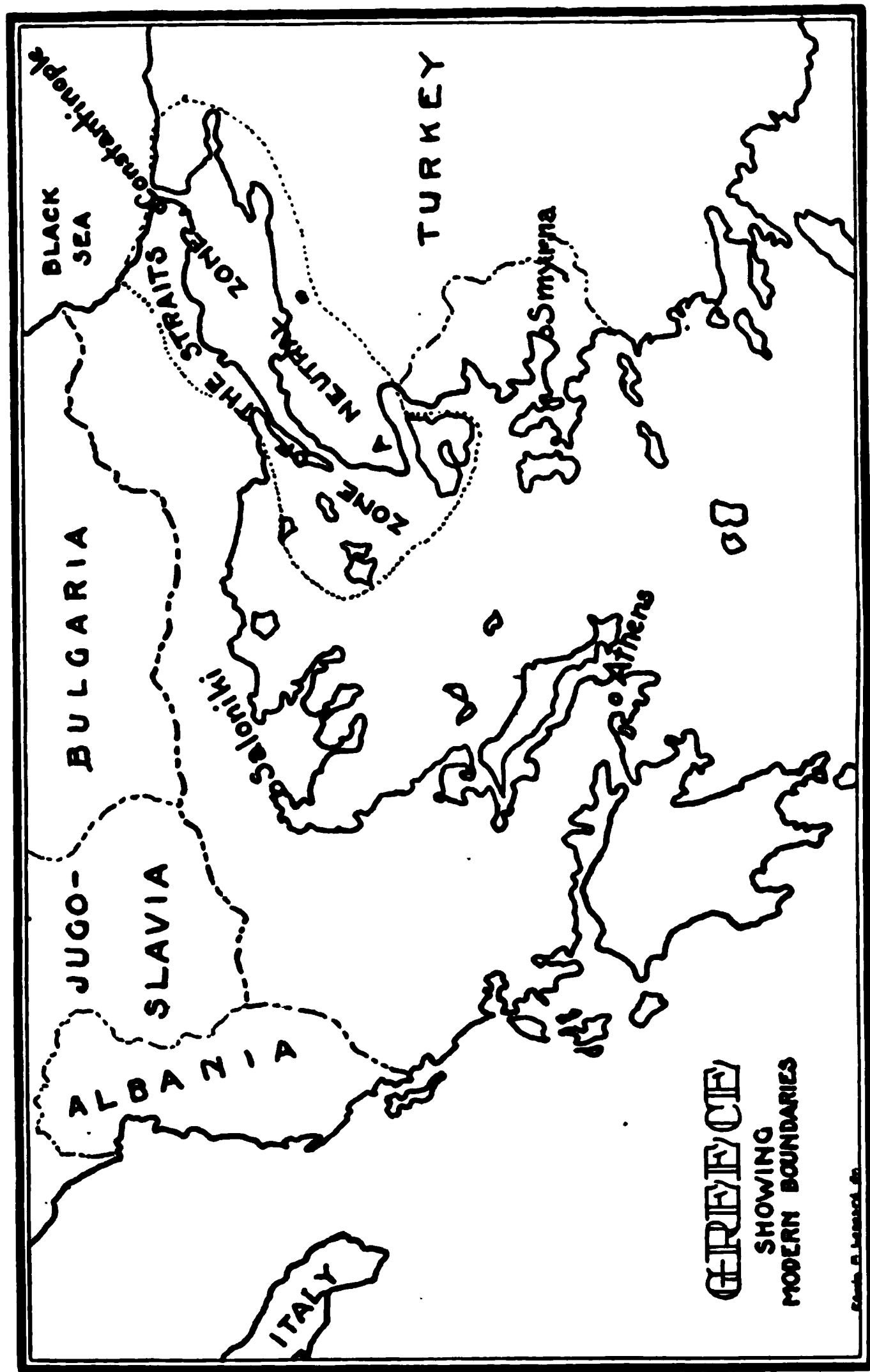
GREECE UNDER A TURKISH YOKE

1453

THE Turks first appear in history soon after the fall of Rome, about the year 500. They are a Tartar race, from the great steppes of Asia.

The Goths, Huns, and Slavonians had come down from the north. The Turks worked their way across from the regions about the Caspian sea, till, in the periods of the Crusaders, the eleventh and twelfth centuries, they were found in control of much land east of the Mediterranean.

Mohammed II planned to gain power for his people by any means he could. He decided at once to capture Constantinople and conquer Greece, for Constantinople was a rich center of trade, and Greece, with her orchards and



vineyards was a prize that all were eager to grasp.

Poor Greece! Sacked by Goths, Huns, Romans, Slavonians, and last but not least, by the Crusaders, she had no strength to repel the fierce Turks.

Mohammed II did just as he had planned. He stormed Constantinople, and ordered his men to kill every human being of the Christian population that came in their path.

Now began a long, long period of darkest misery for Greece. The Turks not only destroyed all that Greece had been patiently building, but determined to kill, if they could, the Christian population wherever their rule extended.

The Turkish desire to destroy was fulfilled completely. All roads, bridges, towns, temples, and buildings in their path that could be ruined without too much labor, were destroyed, and kept in destruction.

The Turkish desire to kill every Christian was checked by fear of other

European powers. Turkey feared they might attack her and drive her people out of Greece again if she went too far, so she spared part of the native people.

Strange as it might seem, the Turks let their savage desire to destroy, ruin even their own hopes of prosperity. Wasted fields can yield no harvests; ruined towns can bring little tribute; but the Turk has never troubled about this. Destruction was his purpose; the rest was left to fate.

The Turkish Janissaries were bands of soldiers, directly under the command of the Turkish sultan. The Janissaries were recruited from Christian children. At first they were captured in war. When Greece was subdued, the Christian population was forced to send them as a tax.

These children were torn from their parents while very young, taken away and trained in the Moslem faith, and the arts of war. At manhood they never knew whose children they were, and then

they served the Turks to overcome their own kindred, to slaughter them or keep them in slavery.

This band of Janissaries at last grew so powerful that the Sultan himself became afraid. He called in his Turkish troops, surrounded nearly thirty thousand Janissaries in their barracks, set the buildings ablaze, and killed the entire troop.

So ended, about a century ago, one of the most famous soldier groups that ever existed.

For three centuries, after 1500, all pictures of Greece seem about the same. Ground beneath the tyranny of a heartless and brainless people, she still managed to keep certain national traits and traditions alive. Revolts were frequent, but the national existence and spirit was utterly crushed.

As time rolled on, a new spirit spread in the world. America declared her freedom, and won liberty for her people by the Revolution. France was throwing

off the yoke of tyranny. The soul of Greece began to stir.

Whispers of liberty were born on the breeze that blew from Crete to Thessaly. Messages from the western world urged the Greeks to strike. The time for which Greece had waited so long was at hand.

VENIZELOS
One of the greatest statesmen of today.

GREECE BEGINS HER REVOLUTION

1821

IN 1821 a revolt began in Greece that swept over the whole country. As the Turks had killed all in their path when they conquered Greece, so now the Greeks, in their turn, fell upon their Moslem neighbors and killed everyone they could. Men, women, and children were killed without mercy on both sides.

Greeks living in western nations aroused interest in the struggles of their native land. The people of England and America raised money and sent help. Thousands of her sons in other lands returned to set the mother country free.

Slowly the struggle wore on. Greece suffered greatly from her poverty and weakness. Her people showed just the

same qualities they did centuries before, in the days of her glory. Bold they were, and heroic, dying gladly in brilliant battles for their native land; but they trusted each other no more than in ancient times.

Again and again the Greeks placed the whole cause on the verge of ruin by their distrust and deceit. It was the jealous hatred of Athens and Sparta, rising again after twenty centuries.

Byron, the great English poet, and other men of note, from America, France, and England, helped save Greece from destruction by these jealous quarrels. They gave good counsel. They led her armies. They held her jealous chiefs together.

With noble and heroic citizens among the Greeks, these adventurous spirits carried on the war, in the face of great odds and disappointment.

Turkey herself finally lost the cause to Greece through her stupid acts. Turkey was crafty, but Turkey was ignorant.

She roused the anger of France, England and Russia by her insults and abuse.

In return for her insults, the English fleet destroyed the Turkish navy. Russia declared war upon the Turks. Unable to fight the Greeks and Russia at once, with a crippled navy, the Turks withdrew their forces from Greece.

So, after enduring for eight years, the war came to an end, and Greece could declare herself free.

GREECE A NATION AT LAST

Never in her history had Greece been a nation, under one government. In the old days cities ruled themselves. Then there were a dozen kings and rulers in Greece. After that came the conquests, that broke the national spirit and character of her people. Now, the yoke of the Turks thrown off, Greece determined to have a constitution, and live as one nation.

Prince Otho of Bavaria was at length selected to be king of the new Greece. A man from another nation was chosen because no Greek could be found suitable to the European nations and to the Greeks themselves.

The new king and the people did not get on well together. The king wanted to rule just as he pleased. He said the

Greeks were mere children and didn't know what they wanted. The Greeks declared that they were being cheated out of their constitution.

The Greeks stood it ten years; then, by a revolt, that fortunately was bloodless, they frightened King Otho and won a constitution, and a right to share in their own government.

Again hope rose in Grecian hearts, but they struggled under enormous difficulties. The country was impoverished. The western countries had loaned them money at such heavy rates that even in prosperity they could hardly have paid.

To make matters worse, the powers who fixed the new boundaries between Greece and Turkey, left much of the best territory, in the north of Greece, with a large Grecian population, still in the hands of the Turks.

Things went from bad to worse. The government failed to keep order. Brigands and robbers increased, and discontent grew more sharp. The diplomats of

Europe, instead of helping, jealously tried to get advantage for their own countries. The whole situation was almost impossible.

In 1862, when our own civil war was raging, Greece once again revolted. King Otho was turned out, and King George, another prince from central Europe, was made constitutional King of Greece.

The struggle for existence bore fruit slowly. Boundaries were widened, the national spirit rose, the grip of Turkey was loosened more and more, and prosperity gradually increased.

Every Greek longed for the day when Macedonia and Thrace should belong to them, and Greece could hold up her head among the nations.

At last, after many mishaps and disappointments in her government, a great man arose, Venizelos, a statesman and patriot. In 1909 Venizelos, a native of Crete, became the leading statesman of Greece.

Venizelos quickly won the trust of his compatriots, and the honor of the Europeans. Rapidly he led his country upwards. The army and navy were built up and drilled. The treasury was replenished. National credit was established. Greece won the respect of European nations, who had long trifled with her destinies.

Venizelos dreamed of freedom for his country, but he was determined that she must take one step at a time, pay her way, and prove her right to govern by the performance of her duties as a nation.

This course prepared Greece to guide her destinies in the great events before her, and make her dreams come true.

The Balkan war, in 1912, opened the way for the new kingdom of Greece.

Four kingdoms had been growing to the north of Greece. These were Servia, Roumania, Bulgaria, and Montenegro. Together they joined with Greece in an attack on Turkey, the common foe.

In a few months, Turkey had given up her claims to most of the land west of Constantinople. Greece saw the cloud lifting. The Thracian and Macedonian provinces were to be hers at last.

Bulgaria had planned, however, to take these provinces herself. Greece realized that she must fight again if she wished to hold her northern provinces of Thrace and Macedonia.

A few weeks after the war with Turkey had ended, the Greek army was prepared for the fresh struggle. Bulgaria attacked, but was so quickly thrown back by the devoted Greeks that she was glad, after four weeks of fighting, to give up her plans, and Greece threw out her boundaries almost to the limits her hopes had drawn for the new kingdom.

GREECE IN THE GREAT WAR

SOON after the Balkan war had ended, an event occurred that brought Greece once more into the whirlwind of battle.

Germany was a country whose fortunes had gradually been linked to those of Greece. King Otho had been of German family. King George was of German blood. Constantine, the son of King George, was now on the throne.

Hardly had the Balkan war stopped, when Germany began to carry out a scheme that she had been planning for many years. Germany wished to control a wide belt of territory stretching south-east through Servia, Greece, Turkey, Asia Minor, clear to India.

In 1914, two years after Greece had won so much by the Balkan War, the great war opened by which Germany hoped to win her empire to the east.

Turkey and Bulgaria turned out to be allies of Germany. What would Greece do? King Constantine had married a German wife, a sister of the Kaiser. He naturally sided with Germany.

Turkey on one side, and Bulgaria on the other, were deadly enemies to face, if she should turn against their German ally. On the other hand the great navies of England and France would have her at their mercy if she offended them.

Venizelos, her great statesman, held Greece back with all his power from joining Germany. It might be that she could remain neutral, and keep what she had gained.

The unstable Greeks found it hard to decide. One day they cheered for Constantine; the next day they cheered for Venizelos with equal joy.

After two years of balancing, back and forth, the party of Venizelos prevailed. Constantine was driven from the country with his German wife. Still the allies in western Europe dared not

trust the Greeks, who seemed as fickle as ever.

England and France, with their navies in the Aegean sea, urged Greece to join their side. It looked as if the western allies were going to win, so the Greeks, with their usual good nature, let the allies have their own way.

This act was fortunate for Greece. Venizelos soon came to a good understanding with the Western Allies. Greece gave some aid in ending the war, and went to the peace table at Paris as a friend of the winning side.

Thus Greece, at last, gained the right and territory her history and situation gave her reason to expect.

In another year an interesting event occurred. Governed by her constitution, in a democratic way, it came time for elections. Friends of Constantine urged the Greeks to elect him to be their king again.

This question was put on the ballot. The elections took place. A great

majority voted for Constantine, and against Venizelos. The dangers from which this great leader had saved them were forgotten, and the return of Constantine was hailed with joy all over the land.

SOLDIERS IN THE RUINS OF A CHURCH

ROME

As the power of Sparta was waning, and while Athens was ruling in full glory in Greece, a new power was growing on the large peninsula across the Adriatic sea. This was Rome.

Rome was a city on the western coast, near the middle of the Italian peninsula. Around her she was gathering smaller towns, subject to her rule.

The southern part of the peninsula was occupied by Greeks, who had sailed across the Adriatic to find new homes in this warm, fertile, sunny land.

North of Rome lay another race, the Etruscans.

At this early date, while Rome was small, the people in the central part of the peninsula were called Italians, and from them the country got its name, Italy, in later years.

When Rome grew great, these people called themselves Romans, but gradually took the name of Italians again after the Empire of Rome fell apart.

There were other race groups in Italy at this time, but the Greeks, the Italians, and the Etruscans were then the most important.

Italy, like Greece, is full of mountains and valleys, so the inhabitants gathered for convenience and defence into cities and walled towns.

Nearly all the good lands and harbors of Italy lay on the west, while those of Greece lay to the east, so the two countries grew with their backs turned to each other.

ROME BEGINS HER GROWTH

ABOUT 400 B. C.

THE Etruscans, to the north of Rome, were rich. They had developed orchards and vineyards, grazing lands and grain fields. Rome looked on these rich lands just as Sparta had viewed those of Messenia. She was eager to have them for her own.

In those days, if one race wanted what belonged to another race, she waited for a good chance, and then took possession. The Romans had waited, and about 400 B. C. their chance came.

North of Etruria, in the land now occupied by France, lived the Gauls. About 400 B. C. the Gauls attacked the Etruscans.

Seeing these wild tribes advancing upon them, the Etruscans begged Rome to help. In reply, the Romans mustered their

armies, marched north, and attacked the Etruscans from their side.

The Etruscans could offer little resistance. City after city fell before the exulting soldiers from Rome, and rich booty, in improved lands, art, and treasure, fell into their hands.

Before this double enemy the Etruscans were crushed. They had advanced to a point in civilization almost equal to that of the Greeks, but after this they disappeared from the view of history.

Many of the Etruscan art treasures and records have been found, but no one has yet learned to read their writings. The story of the Etruscan people still remains to be discovered.

Rome had helped the Gauls to an easy victory over the Etruscans. Made bold with this success, the Gauls pushed on slowly to the south, and before long advanced upon Rome itself.

The fame of the Gallic warriors was great and terrible, and the Roman soldiers fled before them. At last, when the

Gauls appeared at the gates of Rome, many Romans fled across the Tiber River, which flowed south of the city; while the bravest retired behind the walls of the citadel, a high, rocky mound near the center of Rome.

Now all the rich booty, won at such cost of blood, was lost again. Their homes were ruined, their fields ravaged, and nearly all their ancient records were destroyed.

For a long time the soldiers in the citadel held out. Then those who had fled plucked up their courage, attacked the Gauls, and beat them.

Thus the wave of barbarians was rolled back again, and the Romans could rebuild their sacred city.

The records of Roman history before 390, when the Gauls sacked the city, were so completely destroyed that stories of Roman events before that time are mostly fables.

Only a few written laws remained. From these the historians are able to tell

much of the social life of the time when they were written, about fifty years before. These laws were called the Twelve Tables.

The Twelve Tables showed the first efforts in Rome to write down the laws, and keep them where all might read. They were terribly severe on the poor, and everything favored the ruling class.

Under the Twelve Tables, debtors might be sold as slaves, and slaves might be killed by cruel masters, who held all power, even to life and death, over their families, servants, and slaves.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

AFTER the sack of Rome by the Gauls, in 390 B. C., the ruling classes, called Patricians, lost some of their arrogance. They realized that they must win the support of the poorer people, called Plebeians, for most of the soldiers came from this class.

In Rome there was a small body of patricians who wanted all wealth and power. Under them was the large group of Plebeians, or common people, who had few rights. In the eyes of the Patricians they were only tax-bearing animals.

Below these two groups were the wretched slaves, who were often treated with terrible cruelty.

But when the Twelve Tables of laws came into operation, it became clear to

all how unjust and cruel they were. The Plebeians threatened to revolt unless they received better treatment.

As the Patricians expected war with other tribes, they dared not refuse to make reforms. Gradually, as their soldiers won victories, and gained greater power, greater rights and privileges were wrung from the Patricians. These were embodied in the Licinian Laws.

The Licinian Laws showed a great advance for the Plebeians since the Gallic invasion.

For many years Rome had been governed by two Consuls, chosen from the Patricians. These ruled almost as kings. The Plebeians could elect two Tribunes. They were below the Consuls but they might sit in the senate and could veto laws hurtful to the people.

The next step gave the Plebeians the right to have one of the two consuls from their ranks, and gave power to the Tribunes almost as great as the Consuls.

But always, by some scheme or other,

the Patricians managed to keep the upper hand. They now instituted a new officer, that of Censor.

The Censors were selected from the Patrician group. They took the census of citizens and property, putting each man in any rank they saw fit.

The Censors could rebuke any one for bad conduct, degrade a noble, expel a member from the senate, or strike names from the rolls of Roman Citizenship.

Thus the Patricians were forced, from time to time, to improve the condition of the Plebeians, but always managed to keep the real power in their own hands.

Perhaps the chief reason for the continued power of the rich was the behavior of the Plebeians, when they gained wealth and power. Instead of doing their utmost to help their own class, they usually outdid the Patricians themselves in their efforts to crowd back other ambitious ones and keep them down in the ranks of poverty.

REVOLT OF THE LATIN CITIES

ABOUT 340 B. C.

LATIUM was that part of Italy where Rome lay. Round about her, several Latin cities had been gathered into a group of allies by Rome, but they began to fear her greed, and to hate her tyranny.

In the city of Rome the Plebeians had won much freedom, which they valued greatly, but they joined the Roman Patricians in declaring that the Latin Allies should be managed just as Rome saw fit.

The Roman ideas seemed much like those of Greek cities: freedom for themselves, slavery for others.

After some years of bitter complaint, the Latin cities revolted. Rome attacked them and soon brought them all to submission.

In her treatment of the conquered

cities, Rome showed the constructive power that was to make her great.

Sparta had ground her conquered neighbors into the dust. Athens left the subject cities in her empire prostrate and helpless, dependent on her power.

Alexander the Great was wiser. He built up conquered cities, and, while the dread of the Phalanx was over them, they flourished and were at peace.

Rome understood even better than Alexander that only by having strong, successful allies, or subject cities, could the Roman Empire be strong and successful itself.

For this reason Rome granted many rights and privileges to these conquered people. They lived under conditions far better than those of most free peoples of that day, and many of their men were given full rights as Roman citizens.

ALL ROADS LED TO ROME

ALTHOUGH Rome intended to develop her allied and subject cities, she did not intend that they should flourish at her expense, so she planned her vast system of roads to suit herself.

The roads of Italy had been mere tracks in the mud, or paths over the rocks. Rome set her thousands of slaves to work laying out straight, smooth roads constructed of rock, and so well built that many of them are in use today.

These highways, however, went out from Rome in all directions like spokes from the hub of a wheel.

Her allies found trade with Rome easy, over these smooth roads, but almost impossible with each other, for the good roads led only to Rome.

For this reason it was easy to forbid trade between these cities. Rome also

restricted marriage between these allied cities to a large extent.

In this way she prevented new combinations against her own control.

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A ROMAN ROAD NEAR TUSCULUM

Build by the emperors, of heavy stone, these roads seem everlasting

WARS FOR CONQUEST

THE Samnite wars marked the struggle that took place while Rome was making her conquests in central Italy secure. They lasted from about 340 to 290 B. C.

The Samnites, a bold, hardy people, refused to be subject to Rome. They found many Gallic and Etruscan tribes glad to join them against Rome, whose greed and ambition threatened all alike.

Rome had a hard struggle. Several times she made hasty treaties of peace, when her armies faced disaster, but these treaties were quickly broken when Rome felt safe once more.

At last, in 290 B. C., Rome emerged triumphant. Central Italy was desolated. Cities, towns, villages, fields, were laid waste. Thousands of Gauls, Etruscans, and Samnites, men, women, and children, were slaves of the Romans.

Tarentum, a rich Greek city on the southern shore of Italy, held sway over the southern district. Rome determined to control all Italy. Tarentum blocked her conquest in the south, so Tarentum must be destroyed.

The Greek cities had always found a cause for war when they wished for war. Now Rome also found what seemed to her a good reason to attack the people of Tarentum, who were probably doing little harm to Rome, so her armies marched south.

Pyrrus, King of Epirus, in Greece, and a cousin to Alexander the Great, saw the danger of losing an important Greek colony in Italy, and offered to help the people of Tarentum.

Tarentum received his aid, and welcomed his arrival with joy. The Romans now found a great danger where they expected an easy victory.

Pyrrus had a number of elephants, trained for war, which drove the Roman soldiers back in fright. Pyrrus, a great

fighter, won many battles, but he found it impossible to organize the Greeks of southern Italy into a solid community, ready to help and support each other.

As his army dwindled, and the Romans still fought, Pyrrus saw that the cause was hopeless. The Greeks of Tarentum would not submit to any hardship or discipline, so Pyrrus gave up in disgust and embarked for Greece.

The Romans then attacked with double fury and, in 272 B. C., Tarentum was forced to submit, and Rome became mistress of the whole peninsula, south of the Arnus river.

Courtesy Raymond & Whitcomb.

RUINS OF A ROMAN PALACE. SICILY

· THE WARS WITH CARTHAGE

264 TO 164 B. C.

ROME had now gained control of the Italian peninsula. Just across the Mediterranean sea, not three days sail from Rome, lay Carthage, a rich and powerful city.

Her civilization was older than that of Rome, her wealth was greater, and her trade, that Rome envied most of all, embraced the whole Mediterranean, where the navy of Carthage held complete mastery.

Both Rome and Carthage now laid claim to Sicily. To make good her claim, Rome sent an army to hold the island. Carthage also sent soldiers, and this brought on the first of three wars with Carthage, called in history the Punic wars, from the name given these people by the Romans.

Carthage owned a proud navy, with

no rivals upon the sea. Rome had never fought upon the water, had no navy at all, and knew little about ships.

Rome knew, however, that to fight with Carthage she must have ships. With her usual energy she set to work, and soon Carthage was astonished to learn that a Roman fleet was ready for battle.

Little alarmed by this, Carthage sent out her splendid navy to crush the new Roman fleet.

The wily Romans had plans quite new to the Carthagenians. They were provided with long poles, hooked at the ends. Sailing swiftly upon the galleys from Carthage, they grappled them and threw out gangways. Then, running across these light bridges, they overcame the enemy upon their own decks.

Dazzled with this complete success, Rome followed it up with great zeal. An army set out for Africa, and again overcame a powerful Punic fleet on the way.

Once landed near Carthage, the Romans gained fresh victories, and Rome expected a speedy conquest. Then the tide turned.

Carthage roused herself, and attacked the invading Romans so fiercely that they fled to the shore in dismay. A fleet, which was sent to bear Romans home again, was destroyed by a storm, so the Romans gave up the African campaign.

Sicily now became the battle ground again for several years. Gradually Rome gained the upper hand there, and Carthage, which was never fond of war, sued for peace.

Rome, feeling sure of a final victory, refused to make peace. She built more vessels, and attacked a large Punic fleet off the coast of Sicily, with the greatest confidence. Much to her consternation, her fleet was overwhelmed.

The Carthagenians had learned how to meet the Roman methods of naval warfare.

But Rome was not dismayed. The Romans had convinced themselves that the vast commerce and wealth of the Carthagenians would amply repay all their efforts when Rome had won. Another great fleet, of nine hundred ships, was built at great sacrifice of money and labor. This fleet set out in 249 B. C. to win back the Roman fortunes, but it was soon destroyed, not far from the spot where the last Roman fleet had met its fate.

News of this disaster cooled for a time the Roman desire for war, and made Carthage pluck up her courage. In Sicily she won back much territory, and even made Rome tremble for her possessions in Italy.

The Roman nobles now showed their unquenchable courage. Eight years later they built from their own private funds still another fleet with which to make one further effort against Carthage.

Again the rivals met. This time fortune favored Rome. The Carthagenian

fleet was overcome, and Carthage sued once more for peace.

Weary Rome gladly made a treaty, by which Carthage paid an indemnity to the value of four million dollars, and gave up her claims on Sicily.

This war, begun in 264 and ended in 241 B. C., had exhausted Rome for the time being, and had also crippled the Punic sea power.

Neither Rome nor Carthage intended to keep the treaty. Both knew that one must fall, as there was no hope that such rivals could exist in the Mediterranean sea.

Courtesy Raymond & Whitcomb.

ON LAKE COMO. ITALY
One of the loveliest lakes in the world.

HANNIBAL

HAMILCAR had been the greatest Punic general during this long war. He was enraged at the treaty, and went at once to Spain, then partly colonized by Carthage.

In Spain, Hamilcar began to train fresh armies to conquer Rome. Before he could do this he died, leaving a son, Hannibal, who swore to devote his life to the conquest of his country's foe.

Hannibal soon developed into a wonderful leader. Some historians say he was the greatest master of strategy who ever lived.

Twenty years after the treaty was signed, Hannibal was ready. He was then twenty-six.

With a hundred thousand men, he started out in 218 B.C., across northern Spain. His equipment included thirty-seven trained war elephants.

When the army got to the Alps the difficulties began. Winter was approaching; snow was falling in the mountains, and freezing storms caused great suffering among men used to a warm climate.

Cutting new roads for his ponderous elephants, hauling men and tools up dangerous cliffs with ropes, Hannibal continued the climb. The hardships were terrible, but the great general never halted.

When he had gained the top he found the way down even more difficult.

After many hardships the remnant of his army came out upon the plains of northern Italy. Of the hundred thousand men hardly twenty-five thousand were left. With this handful of weak, starved men, Hannibal planned to attack a state that could raise half a million soldiers.

The Romans had organized two armies to attack Carthage. One was sent to Africa, the other to Spain.

They never dreamed that Hannibal

was on their soil, and when his army was discovered all was commotion in the city.

Publius Scipio, who was leading the army into Spain, sent his men out to stop supplies for Hannibal. This was however, wasted effort, for Hannibal planned to get his supplies from Italy itself. Then Scipio hastened back to command a new army in northern Italy.

The first battle, mostly between the cavalry, showed, by the quick defeat of the Romans, how dangerous Hannibal was.

Two Roman armies now joined and attacked the invader. He pretended to retreat, drew them into an ambushade at Trebia, and wiped them out.

The Gauls had been waiting to pick the winning side. These victories led them to join the armies of the victorious Hannibal.

With reinforcements of vigorous troops, with ample provisions and shelter, his figure cast a gloomy shadow over Rome. There all was doubt and fear during the

cold months, while Hannibal was in winter quarters.

The following spring Hannibal led his army west across the Apennines, then south towards Rome. Once more the Romans sent a great army against him. He moved back, and the Romans followed.

One foggy morning Hannibal halted by lake Trasimene, withdrew up the hillside, and left the road along the lake free.

When the Roman army could be heard in the mist below, Hannibal gave the order to advance. His veterans charged down upon the Roman levies; and that day witnessed the doom of another great Roman force.

The way to the capital was now open, and Rome expected an attack, but Hannibal preferred to stay in the open, and he was able to collect immense booty from the smaller cities.

Rome now appointed Fabius, a noted general, to be dictator. To a dictator was given supreme authority, above

senate and above consuls. His orders must be obeyed without question, and the dictatorship was ususally limited to a few months for fear it might lead to tyranny.

Fabius had studied the methods of Hannibal. He realized that the Roman army could not meet the Carthaginians in a direct conflict, so he followed him about, striking sharp blows here and there, but always avoiding battle.

He was so successful in this plan, always preserving his forces as a last defence to Rome, that his name has been given to that type of warfare which is called "Fabian."

A new army was levied, while Fabius was gaining time for Rome, which was ready the next year to meet Hannibal. It was twice the size of the invading forces, and the Romans attacked with fury, hoping to crush Hannibal at last, but the battle at Cannae was a more terrible defeat than those which had come before. The Romans were nearly

all killed, and Rome herself was on the verge of absolute ruin.

Hannibal, worn and wearied by the war, offered terms of peace, which Rome rejected. Again he ravaged the country side, and wintered in Capua, south Italy, which had deserted Rome and joined his fortunes, while most of the Latin allies remained faithful to Rome.

The next spring he marched north, laying waste Rome's fairest provinces, while Rome instantly attacked Capua, her unfaithful ally. She captured the city, put the leading men to death, and sold all the rest, men, women, and children, for slaves. This was the usual punishment for those who deserted her cause.

So the terrible contest wore on, till Hannibal had been destroying the fields and towns of Italy for eleven years. His forces were weary, and anxious to go home. Rome dared not meet him in combat, but refused to make peace.

In 207 B. C., Hannibal's brother

Hasdrubal tried to send an army over the Alps to his aid. He was caught by a Roman army in northern Italy, his forces destroyed, and he himself killed. His head was thrown into the camp of Hannibal, who gave up hope of reducing Rome.

Rome now sent an army under Scipio to attack Carthage, and Hannibal was recalled to defend the city; but his power was exhausted and he suffered defeat.

Carthage accepted, in 201 B. C., bitter terms of peace, and Hannibal soon had to commit suicide to escape the hate of Rome. His end was ignoble, but his fame and glory as a conquering leader of armies still remains undimmed.

Italy had been laid waste, and Rome was reduced to desperate straits, while Carthage, free from the terrors of war, had been growing rich.

Rome had a heavy task to rebuild her fortunes at home. The Greeks and Macedonians had helped Hannibal in his long campaign, and for this they

were now attacked, defeated, and terribly punished.

Now Rome hastily built up her armies, organized her allies more firmly than before, and developed the state into a strong, unified community.

All this time she had kept eyes glowing with jealous hatred on her Carthaginian rivals.

Carthage must be destroyed. As Romans saw her, rich and prosperous, that idea became fixed more than ever in their minds. Cato, a stern senator, and censor, never ended a speech without adding: "And moreover, Carthage must be destroyed."

One rule forced on Carthage, as the price of peace, was that she should make no war without the consent of Rome. Because of this her neighbors became bold, and raided her rich lands without restraint. She asked Rome for permission to protect herself, but the Romans always sided with the robbers, and encouraged the robber hands to greater raids upon her.

THIRD WAR WITH CARTHAGE

150 B. C.

IN 150 B. C., Carthage could stand it no longer, and attacked her enemies without asking Roman permission. This was just what Rome wanted. On this pretext she sent an army against Carthage, saying that she had broken her treaty.

In their anxiety to keep out of war, the Carthagenians gave up three hundred children as hostages from their noblest families.

"If you wish peace, you will not need arms to fight with," said the Romans, "give them up."

"Now," the Romans added, when they had their arms and their hostages, "we came here to destroy your city and we are going to do it."

The Carthagenians, seeing that they

had been basely betrayed, shut the gates, and worked frantically to prepare new arms, and defend the city.

During four years of a terrible siege, they defied the Romans. Then, in 146 B. C., half dead from hunger and disease, they gave up the city.

The Romans killed or enslaved every living being left of a population of seven hundred thousand. They put thousands of soldiers at work to destroy the city completely. What could be burned was burned, and the rest was pulled down and broken till all was level, the Carthaginians being buried in the ruins of their own city.

This conquest was of great importance to Rome, and to all history, because it decided that the Graeco-Roman civilization, and not the Carthaginian, should develop the countries in southern Europe.

The Carthaginians were of Phoenician race, and were like other oriental peoples in their habits and ideas. Their government was despotic; they did not build

up free colonies; they cared little for art, literature, or a free political life; and their religious practices were horrible.

Under their rule the people of the civilized world would have sunk back again into a condition little better than slavery.

The year 146 B. C. was a notable date in Roman history. Fifty years before, at the close of the second war with Carthage, she was on the verge of ruin; but her victory over Carthage gave her a new energy, as the victory at Marathon had aroused the Athenians to wonderful deeds.

Macedonia threatened Italy, but the veteran armies and military skill of Rome soon overcame the Macedonians.

Other eastern peoples then prepared to attack her, but the Roman power was able to crush them all.

Now in 146 B. C., she made herself in the same year complete mistress in the east by the destruction of Corinth, and ended the only power opposed to her in

the west by the fall of Carthage. In 200 B. C. Rome was one of several great nations. In 146 B. C. she ruled practically alone.

FALLS OF THE ANIO, TIVOLI

Tivoli, near Rome, was a famous resort for Roman emperors and nobles.

THE DECLINE OF THE REPUBLIC

FROM 146 B. C

ROME, struggling for life, fighting her way against heavy odds, had shown many marks of greatness. After the crowning victories of 146 B. C., we find a very different Rome. Virtue among those who rule has almost disappeared. Valor among the people is fast giving way to vice and greedy sloth.

In their periods of success and wealth, the Athenians had turned to art, literature, music, and drama; but these had not developed among the Romans. Their chief pleasures seemed to come from the material things of life: food, drink, fine clothes, houses, lands, and slaves to do their work.

To possess all these things a Roman must be rich, so throughout the Roman world we now see a struggle for wealth.

The outlying lands controlled by Rome in the east and west were divided into provinces. Consuls were usually made governors of these provinces, after having served a term in Rome, and were then called proconsuls.

The governor of a province received little pay. He planned to get rich from the taxes levied in his province. As he usually went in debt to pay for his election as consul, and for his appointment as proconsul, he also had to collect enough to pay back the great sums used for political influence.

Besides this, there were judges at Rome who tried the governors that had collected money against the law; so more money had to be raised to bribe these judges, for almost all governors broke the law.

Thus a governor was under the necessity of gathering in a very short time huge sums of money.

Vast treasure and immense stores of booty, grain, wine, provisions, and prop-

erty of all kinds, were sent back to Rome by the armies in the field during the years which followed 146 B. C.

Rome attacked small and weak nations one after the other. Thousands were killed, and thousands more sent to Italy as slaves.

The treasure went into the coffers of the rich, making them richer still, while the slaves did their work. For this reason the poor citizens could earn nothing, and their poverty increased.

Before many years the sturdy common people of Rome had disappeared, and Rome had become a community of millionaires and beggars.

Now Rome boiled with discontent, and the scum of the known world rose there. The struggle between the nobles and the poor grew more and more bitter. Slavery became a terrible curse, slaves being so cheap that it was more profitable to work them to death than to feed them.

Quarrels over the public lands threat-

ened civil war. Judges gave decisions in favor of those who bribed them most. The provinces were stripped. All thinking citizens realized that such conditions must soon produce terrible results.

The Gracchi were two brothers who longed to help the common people. They were brilliant men, great orators and leaders. By their influence they had laws passed which gave to the poor part of the public lands, cheap grain, and more power in the government.

Some of these laws were wise; some were not; but the hatred of the Senate gave such reforms little chance to have a fair trial. Within a few years the two Gracchi were murdered, with thousands of their followers.

The streets of Rome had for the first time been reddened with the blood of her own sons, killed by brother Romans for hatred and revenge.

WAR WITH JUGURTHA

THE war with Jugurtha, in 110 B. C., showed how far the Romans had sunk. Complaints came to the senate from Africa that Jugurtha, King of Numidia, was sacking the villages of his weaker neighbors.

Commissioners were sent to correct matters. They made reports favorable to Jugurtha. Still complaints poured in. A consul was sent with an army to punish Jugurtha, but he soon made friends with the consul, and behaved worse than before.

An investigation was ordered by the senate, and then it was shown that Jugurtha had bribed with huge sums all who came near him. He now bribed the judges, and said that Rome would sell herself if she could find a purchaser.

At last Rome found an honest general,
named Marius, who would not be bribed.
He captured Jugurtha and brought quiet
in that devastated land.

Courtesy Raymond & Whitcomb.

AN IMPERIAL GARDEN IN PALERMO

The Normans, ruling the Roman Empire just before the crusades, had
their capitol in Palermo.

THE CIMBRI AND TEUTONS

THE invasion of the Cimbri and Teutons, in 104, while Rome was still busy with Jugurtha, made her people tremble for their very lives. These were German tribes which were moving south in vast numbers, in search of the fertile fields and warm sun of Italy.

Remembering the terrible Gauls, the Romans dreaded these still more, for they had easily overcome the Gauls in the north, who stood in their way.

Five Roman armies were crushed in the path of the invaders. A second destruction of Rome by the barbarians from the north seemed certain, when Marius returned from Africa, and drilled a new army, recruited from Romans whom deadly fear had now made desperate.

Then Marius waited for a good chance,

and in 101 attacked the Cimbri and the Teutons one after the other. Each tribe was defeated, and all, men, women, and children, were put to death.

A STREET IN A MOUNTAIN VILLAGE

Foot passengers only can make their way through these steep and narrow streets.

THE SOCIAL WAR

THE social war, in 91 B. C. which followed the conquest of the northern tribes, indicated the treacherous foundations upon which the Roman State was built.

The allies of Rome, or *socii*, as they were called in Latin, had complained long and bitterly about the tyranny of the Romans. The citizens of some towns, directly colonized by Rome, were called Latins, and their people had rights as Roman citizens. Many towns and cities in Italy, however, as old as Rome, had been conquered by the Romans, and though now allies, their people suffered all the indignities of slavery.

These allied towns, or *socii*, now driven to fury by the increasing insolence of the Romans, set up a republic of their own. Rome attacked them. The fight

was bitter, and again Rome saw herself on the edge of ruin.

Hundreds of thousands, the best men of Italy, fell in battle, as many more died in the massacres that followed. Cities were burned, fields laid waste. Italy, just recovered again from the Punic wars, was fast bleeding to death.

At last Rome promised the rights demanded, and after this time all free men on the peninsula were classed as citizens of the Roman state, which Italy had now become.

Thus for the first time we see people in a large territory bound together by common ties of self interest. The wasteful strife of city against city was ended. Great historians believe that this measure, admitting the Italian allies to citizenship, was the most important political act in the history of the Roman Republic.

CIVIL WARS IN ROME

MITHRIDATES, king of Pontus, a land on the Black sea, had taken the opportunity, while Rome was fighting the social war, to ravage the Roman provinces in the east, and to kill every Italian he could lay hands upon. His power had grown so great as to threaten even the home territory of Rome.

Marius, who had overcome Jugurtha, and had saved Rome from the Cimbri and Teutons, wished to be made commander against Mithridates. Sulla, also a brilliant officer of high rank, had the same desire. The Senate appointed Sulla who organized his army in 88 B. C. and marched eastward.

Marius, in revenge for this vote of the Senate, raised troops of his own, moved on Rome, had the consul killed, and put himself in the consul's place. Hundreds

of his opponents were killed at his orders, without trial, and Rome now bowed before him as her master.

The strife and bloodshed between Romans, seen for the first time in the revolt of the Grachii, now returned with double terror. The mad rabble followed Marius; his soldiers carried out his whims as laws of state, and all who incurred his displeasure were put to death.

Sulla, meanwhile, had waged successful war against Mithridates. He brought the revolting provinces to submission, and then, with a victorious army, devoted to his interests, turned back toward Rome. In the year 82 Marius was finally defeated by Sulla. He fled to Africa and died in exile.

After the capture of Rome by Sulla, friends of Marius trembled at the vengeance to come.

As soon as his power was made secure, Sulla posted a list of those condemned to death. Those whose names were so posted were proscribed, and any one

would be rewarded for killing them. Their property was given by Sulla to his friends.

Day by day the lists grew longer. Those who had property were in the greatest danger. The friends of Sulla grew richer and richer, till their fortunes were immense. Even brothers betrayed each other to get more wealth, and thousands fled from Rome.

The Senators, now mere tools of Sulla, praised all he had done, and made him absolute dictator for as long as he wished. He reduced the rights of the people, and increased the powers of the nobles. He made laws to suit himself, some bad, some good. Nobody dared complain. Thus he ruled during three years. He then resigned and retired to a secluded villa, where soon after he died.

Sulla's rule had reduced the citizens to a mob of beggars, and the senate to a group of greedy, vicious nobles, eager only to enrich themselves at any cost.

REVOLT OF THE GLADIATORS

SPARTACUS, a famous gladiator, noted the confusion and strife in Rome after the death of Sulla. He was a slave of noble gifts and high purpose, who longed to strike for the freedom of his class.

Gladiators were slaves trained to fight in the arena, and kill each other for the sport of the degraded Romans. It was a horrible occupation.

In 73 B. C. Spartacus was ready. He gathered his bold friends and fled to the crater of Vesuvius, where they were soon joined by thousands of other slaves.

Led by the great gladiator, the forces of Spartacus destroyed seven Roman armies, and held southern Italy during two years. But at last, in the year 71, they were overcome by Crassus, an able

general, and the awful tortures inflicted on those captured served as a warning to all who might have thought of revolting.

POMPEY

POMPEY was an ambitious young officer who had distinguished himself under Sulla, and the Romans now looked upon him as their most able general. Just before the slave revolt, he had been sent to Spain to fight against Sertorius, a noble governor who refused to ruin Spain in order to make the Roman rulers rich.

The people in Spain rallied to defend their champion, and for several years Pompey had little success. At last Sertorius was killed by treachery, and Pompey overcame the Spanish province. He then in 71 B. C. returned to Rome, with part of his army, in time to help Crassus defeat the revolting gladiators and slaves.

Pompey and Crassus were now the most important figures in Rome, for the

time had come when only generals of victorious armies could maintain control.

Pirates at this time ranged the Mediterranean from end to end. In her conquests Rome had ruined thousands of ambitious men. With nothing else to do, many of them raised crews as desperate as themselves, and successfully attacked not only ships, but towns along the shore.

Pompey was given absolute power as dictator over the Mediterranean and a strip of land all about the coast, with the hope that he might drive off these pirates, who actually at times threatened Rome herself. Within forty days he had swept the sea clear of the pirate vessels, and the shores were again safe.

Mithridates was now making new efforts to force back the Roman power throughout the east, and in order to defeat him Pompey was again appointed dictator.

This campaign was the crowning point of Pompey's career. Mithridates was

an able opponent, a great leader, shrewd, vigilant, and renowned, whose name stood with that of Hannibal as a foe to be dreaded. But Pompey soon caused his downfall, and then drove on into the other eastern lands.

After five years, he returned to Rome for the most splendid triumph the world had ever known. Undreamed of treasure was added to the Roman State, and the great] provinces of Asia Minor were made tributary to Rome.

CATILINE, a turbulent, vicious noble, had planned a vast conspiracy while Pompey was away. He schemed to murder the consuls and senators, to seize the property of the rich, and to make himself tyrant.

When all were gathered in the senate chamber, Cicero, at that time consul, and a great orator, arose and denounced Catiline in speeches which millions of readers have applauded throughout the ages. At the close of the third speech Catiline fled, and was soon after killed.

THE RISE OF JULIUS CAESAR

59 B. C.

AFTER Pompey's great triumph there were no more nations to fear, so his army was dispersed, and the senate took measures to reduce his power. Without his army he was not strong enough to control the factions, so he joined fortunes with Crassus, a noble of enormous wealth.

Together they decided to add a third partner, hoping thus to control the destinies of Rome. This third member was Julius Caesar.

Julius Caesar was still a young man. He was of Patrician family, but had made himself a leader of the people. He had been dissolute, but experience had made him more thoughtful. His ambition was boundless, his energy unequalled, and his knowledge of human affairs was not only greater than that of Pompey

and Crassus, but was such that few of the world's great figures have equalled him as a master of men.

The group of three, thus formed, was called the First Triumvirate. They divided the control of the Roman world.

To Crassus was assigned the East. There he planned to form a great army, and to wage victorious wars, and return as sole master in Rome. He made needless war upon the Parthians and was soon killed.

Pompey was made proconsul of Spain. Afraid to stay so far from the city, he remained in Rome, and let deputies govern for him, while he kept a watchful eye on Caesar and on the politics of Rome. Pompey's real ambition, like that of Crassus, was, in the end, to rule alone.

Caesar looked far ahead. He was determined to have not only an army, but a people to support him. Gaul was his allotted share. Thither he hastened, and began his work.

Caesar's first step was to organize an

army. The Helvetians, a Celtic tribe, dwelling where Switzerland now lies, threatened the Roman frontiers. He enrolled his legions, rushed upon the Helvetian forces, and slaughtered nearly all.

He then turned west, and won a victory over the German tribes.

The following year the Belgians gave him a chance for still further victories.

During these months, Caesar wrote careful dispatches to Rome, explaining the terrible danger these wild tribes were to the Roman State, and skillfully working up a feeling of respect and gratitude for his service in protecting Italy.

The destruction and slaughter that Caesar's wars had produced in Gaul now gave way to order and peace. He carried his military control across the Rhine into Germany, and across the channel into England.

Where Caesar went, good government followed. He never forgot to send home

lavish gifts to the people at Rome, but he never sacked a province and left it bare. Public works of all kinds were developed, and all was undertaken that could be done to make each province prosperous.

Gradually the number who praised the name of Caesar grew, until his hope seemed near realization, and the people were ready to stand in his support.

The hour came none too soon. At Rome Pompey had remained friendly to the great conqueror of Gaul, through his love for Caesar's daughter, whom he married. Her death now left him free to follow his ambition, which was to rule alone.

Soon Caesar received an order to return to Rome. He hastened to obey, but when Pompey heard that he was bringing his best legions with him, he fell into a rage. His plans were in danger, for he knew Caesar had many friends in Rome.

"Bring no soldiers across the Rubicon," was the order sent to Caesar from the

Senate. Caesar knew the law forbade him to take an army across that little river, the boundary between Gaul and Italy.

"I will myself make the law," he said, and plunging into the stream, he waded over, followed by his men.

Pompey had no forces in Rome, so he retired to the east, where he raised a large, but badly organized army. After setting Rome in order as best he could, Caesar pursued Pompey.

At Pharsalus, in Thessaly, the two great generals met. Not only must their personal ambitions be decided, but the question whether the east or the west should dominate in Roman affairs.

Pompey was easily overthrown by the Gallic veterans under Caesar, and fled to Egypt. There he was killed by one who thought to please Caesar, but who was himself executed under Caesar's orders, when he found his rival thus done to death

CAESAR RULES ALONE

CAESAR, with no one to dispute his power, now found himself sole ruler in the Roman world.

As his pursuit of Pompey had taken him into the east, he planned to organize that region before going back to Rome.

In Egypt, Queen Cleopatra, fairest of women, had been driven from her throne. She appealed to Caesar, and won his support. He placed her again on the throne, and leaving Egypt once more at peace, he moved on to settle the affairs of the other eastern provinces.

Province after province felt the power of his arms, and the genius of his rule. Within three years he had put down all disorder, and he was able to view from Rome a vast dominion that accepted his authority.

Caesar was great in many varied lines

of work. He would have won fame as a soldier, a scholar, or an orator, but he will chiefly be remembered as a leader of men.

Looking over his vast dominions, he at once laid plans to make the lives of all his people happier and more prosperous. He made new laws, built cities, developed provinces, spread Roman citizenship, and even brought leading provincials to the Roman Senate to represent the interests of their districts.

In his treatment of those about him, Caesar showed a confidence and moderation almost unknown in his time. Those who had been his enemies he forgave, and sought to make them friends.

This faith proved his undoing. Cassius and Brutus, two who received favors, saw Caesar rising in the esteem of all classes. They realized that he would soon be king in name, as he already was in fact, and they planned to end his ambitions with his life.

These two men gathered a group of

treacherous senators, who pretended to be submitting a request; then, while Caesar gave his gracious attention, they drew their daggers.

Seeing those whom he had befriended, and protected, eager to take his life, Caesar looked sady at Brutus. "You, too, Brutus?" he said. Then he drew his robe about him, and died, as he had lived, with dignity and courage.

The murder of Caesar was a deadly blow at the Roman institutions he was shaping so intelligently. The Roman world had been at peace; by this deed it was plunged back into war. Caesar had opened the door of hope to all the peoples who lived beneath his rule; now it was again closed to those who lacked wealth and power.

The name of Julius Caesar comes down to us through the ages, covered with honor, because of the service he rendered to his fellow men.

A SECOND TRIUMVIRATE

WHEN Caesar died, Mark Antony was consul. He was popular, shrewd, experienced, but lacked a high moral character.

Octavius Caesar was a nephew to Julius Caesar, and had been adopted as his son. Octavius was only nineteen, but he enjoyed the prestige of his great father's name.

The Second Triumvirate was constituted by these two men, who took in with them Lepidus, then governor of Spain and Gaul.

Both Antony and Octavius intended finally to get sole power. Warned by Caesar's fate, their first act was to slay every man they feared. Proscription lists like those of Sulla's day were again seen posted, and several thousand well

known Romans had died before the triumvirate felt safe.

Among those who were killed was Cicero, the great orator. He had attacked Mark Antony in his speeches, and he fell a victim to Antony's vengeance.

Antony and Octavius now set out to destroy the conspirators, who had fled to the east after making way with Caesar. This was quickly accomplished. Both Brutus and Cassius killed themselves when defeat came upon them at the battle of Philippi.

Safe from these enemies, Antony and Octavius dropped the third member of the Government, Lepidus, and divided the Roman world between themselves.

Antony, taking the East, was soon enslaved by the charms of the voluptuous Cleopatra. Soon it was reported that he planned to make her queen of the Roman world. Octavius helped to spread these reports, and set out with an army to defeat and destroy his remaining rival. This was brought about in

the naval battle of Actium, fought in 31, off the coast of Greece, Antony and Cleopatra committed suicide, and Octavius was left sole master in Rome.

Courtesy Raymond A. Whitcomb.

WHERE ROMAN EMPERORS ONCE WANDERED

THE EMPIRE OF ROME

27 B. C.

It was now clear that Rome must be governed by a single will, if any effective government was to be maintained, and the rule of Octavius Caesar was welcomed by the Roman people. The old Republican forms were preserved, the Senate met and deliberated, and the assembly elected magistrates, but every one knew that the hand of Octavius directed all things.

In his early conflicts, Octavius had proved crafty, cold, and cruel; but now that he had supreme power he became a just and faithful ruler. The work and ways of his great father he tried to carry on, and he succeeded so well that the whole empire responded to his efforts.

Colonial development received special attention. Industry revived, cities were

built, roads constructed, order established, education encouraged. So great was his popularity and success that the people gave him the name "Augustus," a title hitherto borne only by the gods, and by this title he is known in history.

This was known as the Golden Age of Rome, and so firmly did Augustus Caesar organize his empire, that it lasted three centuries after his death.

THE APPIAN WAY

A famous road near Rome, showing the pillars of the great aqueduct that used to carry water to the city.

THE RULE OF ONE ON TRIAL

UPON the death of Augustus, all realized that some successor must be found to take his place as single head of the state. Only a few, who had selfish motives, wished to return to the former rule under a greedy senate and a popular assembly. By general consent, therefore, Tiberius, the stepson of Augustus, was made the next emperor.

Tiberius proved a conscientious ruler, anxious to serve the people he controlled. In Rome he feared, with good reason, the jealous hatred of nobles who wished his place and power. There he was stern, severe, and suspicious. In the provinces he left a high reputation for kindness and good government. His rule made the Roman Dominions still more satisfied to

retain, in place of the old republican forms, an imperial rule.

Caligula, Claudius and Nero, who followed Tiberius, showed how government under one emperor is likely to work. The ruler always wishes to pass on his throne to his own heirs; but there is never any certainty that these heirs would be worthy of their trust.

Caligula turned out to be a madman and monster. The empire rejoiced when he was murdered by his guard. Claudius was wiser, and made some reforms, especially to protect slaves from the cruelty of their masters. Nero, again, proved to be as bad, toward the end of his reign, as Caligula. He sank deeper and deeper into vice and crime, till at last, deserted by all, he killed himself.

CHRISTIANITY IN ROME

THE birth of Christ came in the reign of Tiberius. Sixty years later, under Nero, the Christians appeared as a group large enough to attract attention and hostility. They refused to worship the Roman gods, and to recognize the Roman forms of worship.

For this Nero ordered terrible persecutions. At one time he had Christians covered with pitch, fastened to posts, and burned, to illuminate the vile revels in the imperial gardens.

But, even while they watched, and jeered at the dying Christians, the Romans were learning to admire their courage and faith. The persecution that was intended to crush the Christians and blot them out, only spread the faith among those who persecuted them

THE RULE OF THE ARMY

AT the death of Nero, in 69 A.D., Rome, after nearly one hundred years of empire, found itself in the wildest confusion. Certainly none of Nero's brood could secure the throne.

The army, meanwhile, had been the support that emperors had learned to lean upon, and it had grown into a strong, well organized body. It was the army that took things into its own hands, and named the next emperor, Vespasian.

Vespasian proved a wise choice. He came from the family of a Sabine laborer, who had won promotion in the army by his commanding genius.

Vespasian knew the needs of the distracted empire and, rude soldier as he was, proved an able and progressive emperor. He not only ruled well, but so trained his

son, Titus, that he became one of the kindest, most self-sacrificing of rulers. The great desire of Titus seemed to be to serve others.

Courtesy Raymond G. Whitcomb

SAINT PETERS. ROME

Seen through the garden of the Knights of Malta.

JERUSALEM AND POMPEII

Two events of great importance took place during this period.

About the year 75, Titus led an army against Jerusalem, as the Jews had revolted. After a long siege, which the Jews withstood till almost all the fighters had perished, the walls fell and the city was laid in ruins.

Soon after the fall of Jerusalem, a terrible event sent a shudder through the empire. People hastened through the streets of Rome.

"Vesuvius has burst forth. Pompeii is doomed!"

Vesuvius, a high mountain near Naples, just south of Rome, had burst into flames. Great floods of lava poured out. A deluge of hot ashes descended

The cloud of ashes darkened the sky over all Italy, and before long Pompeii

and Herculaneum, two large cities near Vesuvius, were buried so deep that even their sites were forgotten.

Hundreds of years later, in the eighteenth century, while digging a well, the Italians found the site of Pompeii.

Since then this great city of two thousand years ago has been gradually excavated, and the streets, houses, temples, public buildings, even the men and women, with their dress and ornaments, have been disclosed, preserved by the layer of volcanic ash, just as they were when the Romans, in the time of Caesar, made Pompeii their home.

THE BAY OF NAPLES. LOOKING TOWARD POMPEII

THE GOOD EMPERORS

VESPASIAN and Titus, by their able efforts to serve, had brought the empire again into fair order, and again the people were content to let the emperors choose their own successors. Trajan, who came in 98 A.D., was a Spaniard by birth, and a great general. He pushed back the nations crowding upon the northern and eastern boundaries, and he largely extended the limits of the Roman Empire.

Hadrian, Trajan's cousin, who followed in 117, found it necessary to spend much time in protecting these frontiers, as Rome was constantly threatened with invasions.

Trajan withdrew the boundaries in the east nearer to Rome, and strengthened the army. His most famous work was Hadrian's Wall, which he built across the island in Britain, to protect the southern

part from the wild raiders of the Highlands.

Hadrian also followed the example of Trajan in developing that great network of smooth, straight roads, that led from Rome to all points of the empire.

Marcus Aurelius, the last of this group, known as the good emperors, came to the throne in 161. He deserves to be remembered by all who read of Rome. He was a scholar, a philosopher, and a gentleman, bringing the entire fruits of a great mind and a good life to the work of guiding the fortunes of his people. No task was too great, no hardship too severe, if the good of those he served might be attained.

Trained to the study and the salon, Aurelius was obliged to give up his books and friends to take the sword, and in the wastes and forests of the frontiers, defending Rome from hostile invasion, he lived and died.

Strong to rebuke the wrongdoer and to defend the oppressed, he so ruled that the great spaces of the Roman world were

filled with a population that enjoyed happiness and prosperity which could have been made possible only by the service of a man of original genius and capacity for self sacrifice. A volume of "Meditations" left by the Philosopher Emperor, is still, eighteen centuries after his death, of service to thoughtful readers.

Courtesy Raymond G. Whitcomb.

ONCE THE BATTLEGROUND OF ROME AND GAUL

MANY BAD RULERS

COMMODOUS, the son of Marcus Aurelius, proved a wretch so infamous that he was at last, in 192, murdered by his own soldiers.

Again the army ruled. The empire was 200 years old, and well established, but the emperor's throne had become the object of rivalry and strife among the generals of the army.

The strongest won, but such was the difficulty of ruling, and so many were they who wanted the place, that, during the following ninety years, twenty-seven "barrack emperors" came and went. Nearly all died at the hands of those whom they tried to rule.

NOTABLE CHANGES IN ROME

DURING three hundred years, from 31 B. C., to 284 A. D., the Roman Empire had shown many important results of the greatest interest.

With a hollow mockery of republican forms, in the hands of a greedy band of nobles, who made up the senate, the empire had come close to the edge of destruction.

Under Caesar it secured that strength which comes from order and good government. Augustus retained the directing power, but left the old forms of republican machinery. The senate voted, the assembly discussed public matters, and local councils all over the empire attended to local business.

During the next century, the emperors followed this plan of rule. Intelligent citizens realized that the emperor held all

real power, but the majority were satisfied to see the empire strong and prosperous. During this century, the people under Roman rule, from Spain to Egypt, enjoyed civilized comforts and prosperity such as they had never before known, and have never known since.

Rich men took pride in showing generosity in public works. Great cities, with water works, sewers, theatres and spacious homes, were scattered over the territory where mean dirty hamlets now lie.

Beneath this activity and prosperity were, however, serious defects, which, like worms in a palace wall, slowly weakened the foundations of the State.

Self government gave way more and more to government from the ruler's throne. To enforce his rule and protect his boundaries, the emperor made his army strong. The fighting, no longer cared for by patriotic citizens, was left to the hands of professional soldiers.

War became a profession, and citizens became weaker in body and will, more

servile, more docile, more willing to be cared for and do as they were told.

All this time fierce nations which hated Rome, and wanted her rich lands, pressed upon her borders, while the army itself, producing nothing, was becoming master of those who worked and produced.

During the last century before 284 A. D., conditions showed the worms at work; the structure began to totter. Generals bought for a vast price the imperial throne, and were soon murdered by the soldiers, who wished to sell the empire over again.

Even had Rome been free from dangerous enemies, this condition must soon have brought ruin in its train.

But on all the borders of the empire were nations, not trained in the arts and enjoyments of peace, which looked with envy upon the wealth and comforts of the Romans.

The Moors were moving north in Africa; the Persians were attacking from the east; the Goths were overrunning

northern Greece; the Germans were descending into Italy itself; and the Franks were pressing into Gaul and Spain.

As a further trouble, the Empire was, in 166, visited by a terrible plague. During the following century, this plague returned frequently, bringing desolation upon many communities.

The ravages of enemies without, and of disease within, found no sturdy Romans to withstand them. The Romans had become enervated. They loved comforts and luxuries, and had small families. They still looked for protection and control to the throne, and they looked in vain.

The rule of one man as emperor could be successful only so long as the emperor and his people were men of power and ambition. The very nature of imperial rule had robbed the citizens of power and ambition, and with the pillars of its whole structure thus weakened, the empire began to crumble in decay.

DIOCLETIAN – DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE

284

WHEN Diocletian came to the throne in 284, he realized that the task of ruling had become too great for one man. He therefore asked a faithful friend, Maximian, to rule with him, taking charge of the East, while Diocletian ruled in the West.

These rulers then each divided his part, giving half into the care of an assistant.

Thus there were really four rulers now in the empire, although Diocletian, by his great ability, held command. He was the last of those known as the barrack emperors, a rough soldier, but able, far-sighted, and earnest. After twenty years of authority he resigned, and persuaded his partner, Maximian, to do the same,

leaving their two assistants to become joint rulers.

This change brought on new civil wars, and struggles for the throne, which lasted seven years, until 306, when Constantine, the son of one of these joint rulers, who had died, came into power. At first Constantine associated with himself a joint ruler, but he soon quarrelled with this associate, overcame his forces, and ruled alone.

THE ARCH OF CONSTANTINE

CONSTANTINE SUPPORTS CHRISTIANITY

CONSTANTINE'S rule must be remembered for two important events: he recognized Christianity as a favored or state religion, and he transferred the capitol of the empire from Rome to Byzantium on the Bosphorus, north of Greece.

Christianity had, during three hundred years, grown steadily in the cities of the empire. Because the Christians had refused to worship the Roman gods and emperors, and had held their meetings in secret, they had been suspected and hated by the lower-class Romans, and had been punished, and persecuted to death by intelligent Romans, because of the strife and trouble aroused by their faith.

In the reign of Diocletian, a persecution had been carried on against them with

great severity, causing the death of thousands.

But the Christian spirit grew constantly among the people, and Constantine, far-seeing and broadminded, decided to put a stop to all persecution, and took the Christians under his imperial protection.

Thus made free, the Christians spread abroad their teachings among the Roman people, and also among the barbarians themselves. So it came about, when Rome fell as a political state, the Christian groups were strong enough to hold many important communities together, and to preserve for later generations, the most valuable of the Roman institutions.

Governments have come and gone, but the Christian Church came to be recognized as the very foundation of civilized society. This act of Constantine, acknowledging the Christians, was the most important event of the fourth century.

Byzantium, with a wonderful situation near the center of the empire, crossed by many important trade routes, and pro-

tected from barbarian hordes, seemed to Constantine a better place for a capitol than Rome.

The people in Byzantium were more quiet than those of Rome, who had grown turbulent and vicious during the long years of strife under the barrack emperors.

For these and other reasons, Constantine decided to make Byzantium his capital, and to call it Constantinople, which means the City of Constantine.

With the empire in the east now set up by Constantine, we have little to do. It brought nothing new or important to the nations from which western civilization sprang. It did form a protection for several centuries, until its fall in 1453, against attacks from the east, which might have brought hordes of barbarous races upon Europe, before it had gained strength and discipline to withstand them. It fought back one race after another for a thousand years, until it was finally broken up, and its territories occupied largely by the Turkish Empire.

ROME INVADED FROM WITHOUT

GERMANIC nations all along the northern bounds of the Roman Empire had been breaking through into her lands at many points, and by 350 they were already beginning to settle down and make their homes within the Roman boundaries.

These Germanic tribes were rough, rude, warlike, and cruel, but they were better citizens, in certain ways. They were more upright, fearless and ambitious than the cultured Romans. The Roman home and civic life had in great part become corrupt, but the life of the Germanic people was pure and strong. They were quick to learn, and ready to adopt the Christian religion, which missionaries had brought to them.

The Romans had gradually become servile, cowardly, weak, and these strong

men of pure blood and fresh vigor were able to overcome the Romans. They then mingled with them, lived among them, and helped to build again the crumbling structure of their state.

Courtesy Raymond & Whitcomb

ROMAN BATHS AT NIMES, FRANCE

The Romans left in the cities of Gaul structures that rival those of Rome.

THE GOTHS

THE Goths were the first of these tribes to move southward. In great fear of attack from the northeast by the Huns, more terrible than the Goths, thousands appeared upon the north bank of the Danube, east of the Adriatic, and begged the Romans to let them settle in safety beyond the river. This was done, but they were mistreated by the contemptuous Romans, and revolted. They easily overcame the Roman armies, and seized more lands, but they showed little desire to kill or destroy.

Alaric, in 395, was made the leader of these Goths. Seeing how weak the Romans were, he led his people down into Greece, and then around the Adriatic into Italy, seeking the fairest lands for homes.

There his small force might have been stopped, but thousands of other German soldiers, enraged by their treatment in the Roman army, joined Alaric.

Marching on, he came at last to Rome. Mankind had thought Rome safe forever from hostile arms, but Alaric besieged the city twice, and in a third attack they broke in and plundered Rome.

Being Christians, the Goths spared the churches, and those who took refuge in them. They took what plunder they wanted, and then went farther south, planning to cross into Africa, but the death of Alaric put a stop to the African migration.

Turning north again, one division of the Goths moved up into Gaul and Spain, where they ended their wanderings and founded their new state. This covered the southern part of Gaul, and almost the whole of Spain.

In Gaul they remained about a century, until the Franks took control, about 500. In Spain their government lasted two

centuries longer, until the Moors destroyed their kingdom.

As years passed, the name "Goth" disappeared. They mingled with the peoples of Gaul and Spain, adopted many of their customs, and helped to improve the races where they lived.

A GOTHIC CASTLE

Towering above the surrounding land, gardens and fruit trees are made secure by the great walls.

THE VANDALS

ANOTHER tribe of the Germanic peoples, the Vandals, finding the boundaries of Gaul and Spain poorly guarded, had made their way into Spain, and settled there. When the Goths arrived, they forced the Vandals south, across into Africa.

In Africa they built up again the city of Carthage, and became a powerful maritime people, as the Carthagenians had been centuries before. Bold and destructive by nature, they turned to piracy and made all the Mediterranean coasts tremble at their very name.

Finally in 455, they attacked Rome itself, half a century after Alaric had captured the city. Bringing up a large fleet, they spent two weeks plundering and destroying.

Many treasures, gathered from all

parts of the empire, of great historic value and religious interest, had been spared by Alaric.

These were now placed by the Vandals upon their ships and carried out to sea, where they were lost in a storm, which wrecked most of the fleet.

For nearly another century the Vandals harried the coasts, before they were finally scattered. From their wanton destruction the name "Vandal" has come to be used for any one who wantonly destroys life or property.

ATTILA AND THE HUNS

WHEN the Goths begged to cross the Danube, about 375, they were in deadly fear of a fierce Tartar race, which was crowding into central Europe from Asia. These were the Huns.

The Huns were not at all like the great, fair Goths. They were small, wiry, tough, with beardless faces, scarred in boyhood with hot irons, and beadlike eyes.

The Huns rode on small, swift horses, and fought so fiercely that all fled before them.

Sweeping westward under their king, Attila, these fierce hordes sought not homes or new lands, like the Goths, but booty and destruction. Men, women, and children were killed, homes were burned, and fields laid waste wherever they passed.

Finally, seeing that they would all perish if they did not resist, the men of Gaul, Germans and Romans together, joined in a fierce battle with Attila at Chalons, in Gaul, in 451. The Huns were defeated, and Europe was saved.

The next year, after ravaging part of Italy, Attila died, his ill organized kingdom soon went to pieces, and by the sixth century, the Huns had mostly disappeared from Europe.

THE COLOSSEUM IN ROME

seated 87,000 people. Beneath the arena were the
ns, where beasts and prisoners were kept, till they
th to die, to make sport for the Romans.

THE FRANKS

THE Franks were another tribe of Germanic people who had come southward into Gaul, while the Roman Empire was gradually breaking up. They crossed the Rhine and settled in the lands south and west of that river.

Their numbers increased, and when, in 410, Alaric the Goth captured Rome, the Franks also began to realize the weakness of the Empire, and to build up a power of their own.

The Franks were still heathen, rough, and savage, but, like their relatives, the Goths, they were ambitious and quick to learn. Their aim was not kill and destroy, but to develop and control a homeland.

This they were able to do, and the country called Gaul came to be known as France. Their later story can better be told under the history of that country.

SAINT VINCENTO

While Rome was falling apart, learning, and the records of Roman civilization were sheltered in monasteries like this.

THE FALL OF ROME

476

WITH the Goths, the Vandals, the Huns, and the Franks, and other nations of less importance, breaking in and taking land and cities, the Roman Empire of the West has now become only a name.

The event which is given by historians as that which marked conveniently the end of Roman history, and the beginning, on the peninsula, of Italian history, came in 476; and that date is given as marking the Fall of Rome.

Odoacer, a leader of the Goths, had been trained in arms. He understood fairly well the conditions in Italy, and was wise, bold, and ambitious. After a victorious campaign in the East, as a general under the Byzantine emperor, Odoacer made his way to Italy.

In Italy he found that the western

emperor was little Augustus, a lad of eight. The boy's father was the real ruler, and was in the midst of a quarrel with his Gothic soldiers, about land for their homes. Odoacer understood these Goths. "Just make me king," he told them, "and you shall have all the land you want."

This offer they promptly accepted and elected Odoacer king. He then beheaded the little emperor's father, and sent the lad off to live in a pretty house with all the toys he wanted.

Thus Odoacer the Goth came into undisputed possession of the throne of the Romans. The history of the Roman Empire is closed and the story of Italy begins.

Rome, as a great nation, had lasted less than four hundred years before it began to crumble. First we see a republic gorging itself with the spoils, the very lifeblood of its neighbor nations, growing wonderfully, and, overcoming all opposition, in an overwhelming ambition to

rule, for the sake of preying upon those it could dominate.

This republic, approaching destruction from the quick decay of its manhood and citizenship, after little more than a century, becomes an empire, dominated by a tyrant and his army, while the republican forms gradually give way to those of a monarchy.

Rebuilt by the earnest labor of a few great rulers, the nation lives again, stronger, happier, more prosperous than ever before.

This empire now develops and builds up the provinces that the old Republic despoiled. These provinces add their strength to the empire, but beyond the provinces there is a ring of other nations that Rome would gladly destroy, had it still the power.

Again, however, protected in war, and dominated in peace, by the ruler and his army, the manhood of the empire decays, ambition flags, strife grows, the great empire splits in two parts.

The virile barbarians, seeing her decay, crowd in and wrest control from those too feeble and cowardly to defend their lands, and the great empire comes to an end.

WOMAN GATHRING WOOD

In Italy wood is scarce, and the poor must gather it in small branches as best they can.

ITALY

HER STORY BEGINS

476 A. D.

THE great Roman Empire had flourished as a single state for three hundred years and more. It covered the lands where Germany, France, Spain, England, Italy and portions of Jugo-Slavia now are. It also spread over into Africa, and into the east as far as Persia.

The tribes from without had finally forced their way down into the western part of the empire, till the government had little control over this territory.

At last Odoacer, a Goth, took the crown from the head of the little Augustus, who then held the title as Emperor in the west, and put it on his own head.

When a Gothic prince, coming down from the north, thus put on the emperor's crown, historians agreed that this marked

the end of the Roman empire in the west. So, though no great change took place, 476 A. D. is said to mark the end of Rome, on the Italian peninsula, and the beginning of the history of Italy.

The Empire of the East, with its capital at Constantinople, continued to exist, under varying fortunes, for another thousand years. In 1453 it was overcome by the Turks, who blotted out the last trace of what had been the great Empire of Rome.

Our story will now turn to those people who were to take up their life on the Italian peninsula after the empire of Rome had passed away.

Odoacer was called a barbarian by the Romans, because he was of a rough, warlike, Germanic race, but his rule in Italy was better than that of the weak, dissolute men who had preceded him.

For fourteen years he did his best to make Italy prosperous and happy, and he then gave way to a Gothic leader even stronger and more resolute than himself.

THEODORIC

489 A. D.

THEODORIC was a Gothic prince, trained in the court service at Constantinople. In him were combined the rugged power of the Goths, and the skill in ruling men, that he had gained as a leader of armies under the eastern emperor.

The eastern emperor soon came to fear this great, handsome, dominating Goth, and when Theodoric asked permission to conquer Italy, and overcome Odoacer, it was quickly granted. When a ruler has two enemies to be feared, he likes nothing better than to set them fighting each other.

Theodoric at once gathered his people together. They placed all their goods on great carts, and started, with their women and children, across the mountains for Italy. Theodoric planned to capture the

Italian peninsula and to make it a home for all his people.

At last, after a march of nearly a thousand miles, and for part of the way in very cold weather, these sturdy Goths reached Italy.

Both Odoacer and Theodoric were good generals, and neither was able to overcome the other. So they made a treaty, agreeing to divide the territory.

This done, a great feast was held in the camp of Theodoric, and at this feast Odoacer was murdered. All his family were later put to death by Theodoric, for fear that some member might lay claim to the crown.

Then began a long rule by a truly great man. Theodoric, like most leaders of his day, was cruel to his enemies, but when these were safely out of the way, he devoted all his high talents to making Italy prosperous and happy.

Theodoric did indeed lack those cultured gifts the Romans had prized. He could not read nor write, but he made all

respect his will. He promoted manufactures, husbandry, and commerce. He saw that all men were treated justly. He brought Italy to a place of honor among the nations, and caused her to bless the day he became her ruler.

He was wise enough to select as Secretary of State a scholarly man, named Cassiodorus. Cassiodorus rendered important service to literature in preserving the libraries from destruction, and in inducing the Benedictines to carry on the production of books.

Theodoric ruled forty three years in Italy. He died in 576, leaving no sons to carry on his central government; and no leader appeared who was strong enough to take his place.

ITALY IS TORN WITH STRIFE

ITALY, without a strong, controlling hand, soon became tangled in many quarrels. Large cities, Rome, Naples, Ravenna, Florence, Milan, behaved like those of Greece in former days. Each undertook to rule an independent dominion and to carry on rivalries and strife with its neighbors.

The Emperor of the East, learning of this anarchy in Italy, sent Belisarius, a great general, to win back the lost provinces in the west.

Then began wars without end. The story of how Belisarius captured Naples is a famous tale.

Having overcome Sicily and all the southern districts, without much trouble, he found Naples too strong to attack.

Sending his soldiers to examine every rock and grove about the city, Belisarius

found at last a deserted aqueduct that led beneath the walls.

"Search it out," he ordered. "It may give an opening within the gates."

A scout crept in, and made his way down, till he came to a place too narrow to admit his body.

"Take big files," came the command, "and file away the rock. Strike not with hammers, lest they hear the blows."

Soon the opening gave passage. The rest was clear, and at the end they found themselves in an empty reservoir.

Clinging to the rocks, they crawled up the steep sides. There they found an old woman, gathering grapes by her cottage door.

Threatened with death, the old woman stood dumb, while the men let down ropes, and drew up six hundred comrades.

At midnight they went silently to the city gates, overcame the guards, and let in the army.

Finding themselves outwitted, the garrison of Naples quite willingly joined

Belisarius, and went along with him to capture Rome. That city, not unwilling to change Gothic rule for Roman, was easily taken.

City after city was taken by Belisarius and was returned to the rule of the eastern empire. But hardly had Belisarius gone on to enlarge his conquests, when the Goths, or Franks, or some other tribe of barbarians, would press forward again to the attack, until life in Italy was like one great riot. Even the quiet days were weather breeders, heralding a storm to follow.

Belisarius was a great general, and an honest upright ruler of men, but he found his walls falling down almost as fast as he built them up. His troubles with the Goths and Franks were enough, but a new race now descended on Italy, even more terrible than these. The new invaders were the Lombards, a fierce race which migrated from the north, and which now looked covetously on the fair fields of Italy.

Ruthless, powerful, and brave, they spread terror before them, and captured city after city. They gave their name to a northern province, later known as Lombardy.

This invasion of the Lombards completely destroyed the unity of Italy. They were not strong enough to control the peninsula, so they gradually withdrew to Lombardy, in the north, where they made their homes.

This left many cities, like those of ancient Greece, each more or less independent; each fighting with its neighbors for precedence.

From about 575, to 800 A. D., the peninsula was torn with strife among those seeking power or wealth, and no one person or one city-state was great enough to secure mastery of the country.

THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH

WHEN the Roman Empire broke up, and the central authority was gone, one institution remained to guide the destinies of the new Italy that was to be. This was the Christian Church.

Through all the years, when the power of the old Empire was waning, missionaries had been quietly at work, out beyond the frontiers. They had gone into Gaul, to Spain, to Germany, to Britain, and had preached there the doctrine of brotherhood and charity of the Christian Church.

Most of these missionaries had gone forth from Rome, where the bishops had been strong and active. Their converts, who were numerous in the provinces, saw the veneration these missionaries paid to the head of the church in Rome, and they also learned to venerate the

one who directed the Christian Church.

So, when other rulers lost power, and confusion came into life throughout Italy, there were thousands who had learned to look with respect and veneration on the Bishop of Rome, as one who could command others, deal justly, settle disputes, and direct the lives of unhappy, disturbed people into more peaceful ways.

These Christian people steadily increased in number, and the importance of the Church at Rome became greater and greater. Whatever changes took place in kings and kingdoms, the Church remained steadfast, always organized, and firm on its foundations.

Soon after the fall of Rome, in 476 A. D., the Bishop of Rome came to be called "papa," father, by many, and this word grew into "pope."

As people died in the faith, with money and property to dispose of, they often left it to the Pope of Rome, to save it from the grasp of greedy and wicked ones. Great estates were left in his care, as the

years rolled on, and even cities and districts came under his direct control.

Thus it happened that the Pope of Rome became the head of the Christian Church all through the land once covered by the Western Empire of Rome, and he has remained to this day the head of the Roman Catholic Church in all lands.

Thus it also came about that the Pope of Rome became the ruler of cities and districts larger than those of many a king, and held such power that kings themselves bowed beneath his mandate. They not only respected him as the head of all things spiritual, but respected him as one who could call thousands, even millions, to his aid in case of need.

ENTRANCE TO PINCIAN GARDENS, ROME

CHARLEMAGNE

800

CHARLEMAGNE was a great king who not only helped to build up the power of the Christian Church, but did much to bring order out of the chaos in Western Europe.

Charlemagne was a ruler of the Franks, who had settled in the region now covered by France and Germany. He was an organizer and ruler nearly equal to Julius Caesar. Gradually he brought to submission one rebellious tribe after another, till a vast territory north of Italy, from Spain to northern Greece, had been subdued, and brought into a unified dominion.

These Franks were Christians, and when the pope was attacked by the Lombards and other enemies, he begged the Franks for help. Charlemagne went to

the Pope's aid with such good will and success that when the Frankish armies, in 800 A. D., finally put the enemies of the pope to rout, the pope crowned their great leader, and made him emperor of the domain they controlled together.

Charlemagne now ruled not only great regions of the north but Italy also. He had his central court at Aix la Chapelle in the Rhine Valley, and showed such wisdom and power in his conduct of affairs that many of the German tribes were brought under a central government, and became civilized to such an extent that Italy was spared many attacks from the western barbarians that otherwise must have come upon her.

Although no successor followed Charlemagne, strong enough to wield his sceptre and control the empire, the influence of his rule endured in Italy for at least two centuries.

THE NORMANS IN ITALY

ABOUT 1000

DURING the century before the year 1000, a band of powerful, resolute, seafaring people had sailed down from Scandinavia, and ravaged the shores of Britain and Gaul. They took an important part in the history of these lands, and they conquered, as their own home, a part of Northern Gaul, now called Normandy.

Tancred was a Norman prince who had twelve sons, all bold hardy adventurers. These young men joined expeditions into the Mediterranean sea, which the Normans were sending out just after the year 1000.

Led by the bold sons of Tancred, the Normans attacked and captured the islands south of Italy, and parts of Italy itself.

“Ah, those lands are fair, and rich,” they cried, when they returned to their father’s court. “We must capture and hold them for our own.”

For many years, first under the leadership of Tancred’s sons, and later under other leaders, equally wild and fearless, the Normans battled for the possession of Italian cities. In 1084 they captured and sacked Rome, and in 1090 Count Roger conquered Sicily, which was held as a Norman Kingdom. A Duchy under Norman rule was also established on the mainland.

Gradually, however, these Normans mingled with the native Italians and became a part of the people they sought to rule.

THE CRUSADES

ABOUT 1100

AFTER the death of the great Charlemagne, in 814, Italy had been given over more and more to wars from without, and strife from within. By 1100 these troubles were bringing her people into sad confusion and hardships, when great events took place which roused fresh interests, and gave life in many Italian cities a new and wider outlook. The Crusades were beginning.

With the growth of the Christian Church, sacred spots, here and there, in Christian lands, became noted. People would tell how a lame leg was cured while praying at one shrine. Others reported how blindness was cured at another shrine. Gradually the number of people grew, until thousands were visiting these sacred spots for prayer and help.

The tomb of Christ, at Jerusalem, was the one shrine sacred above all others. There thousands went, though the way was long and dangerous, to worship, and take some sacred relic back to their homes in Europe.

In 634, Jerusalem, with its holy places, had been captured by the Mohammedans. In the succeeding twenty-five years, the Arab armies swept over the whole of north Africa, into Spain on the west, and up into Asia Minor on the east.

While the Mohammedans from Arabia controlled the holy places about Jerusalem, the pilgrims from other lands were treated with courtesy, and the natives profited much from the money spent in Palestine.

By the close of the eleventh century, however, all this was changed. A race of Turks, coming down from central Asia, were won over to the Mohammedan faith, and then became the rulers of the Mohammedan lands.

No sooner had the Turks taken control

THE UNTAMED TURK

Thousands of these men, allies of the Germans, murdered thousands of Christians during the war, and are still at it.

of Palestine, than sad tales of their behavior were told in Europe.

“They robbed us, they insulted us, they killed our friends. We just escaped with our lives. They desecrate the holy places.”

The good Christians throughout Europe naturally became enraged; and in 1095 the Emperor of what remained of the Eastern Roman Empire, called upon the Pope of Rome for help against these infidels.

In turn the Pope called upon the Christians in Europe to save the holy places from the Turks.

In answer to his call hundreds of thousands pledged themselves to help. The wars and quarrels over these western lands ceased. All eyes turned to the East. All minds were lifted in exalted thoughts of rescue for their holy places. From every tongue rose the cry: “It is the will of God.”

As Italy lay in the path from western Europe to the Holy Land, she received

rich benefits from these Crusades. Cities on the sea, like Genoa and Venice, rapidly grew in wealth and power.

The movement was so vast that these people were carried forward in ideals and ideas to a new point of civilization. Those returning from the east brought news of cities, and schools, and public works, far better than those in Italy, and the Italians had a desire to improve their own conditions.

With this new idea of life came prosperity enough to carry out their hopes and aspirations, for the trade through Italian cities had increased to enormous figures.

As an example, let us remember that not long after this the city of Florence ruled more people and owned greater treasure than did the king of England.

The Crusaders succeeded at first in wresting Palestine and the holy places from the Mohammedans, where they outdid the Turks themselves in cruelty and violence.

Gradually the high ideals which had inspired the Crusades also passed.

The Christian leaders fought each other instead of the infidel Turks, and the Crusades degenerated into expeditions for conquest and plunder.

The story of the last important Crusade shows the way Christian cities in that day were likely to behave.

A hundred years after the first successful crusade set forth, an army of knights from France and Germany arrived in Venice, planning to hire ships, and buy supplies for the trip to Palestine.

They waited for money to arrive from home, but it did not come. Already they were in debt to the Doge of Venice for food and shelter.

"Your people will never send money to pay your debts," he told them, at last. "Why don't you join me in a venture that will make us all rich?"

"What is it?" they cried.

"Forget about the Holy Land. No profit lies there. Let us join forces and

capture Constantinople. It is a city of vast treasure, and will make us rich."

So they set forth.

At the call of the Emperor in Constantinople, the first Crusade had gone in 1100 to his aid against a common foe. Now in 1200, the army of the fourth Crusade was stealthily approaching the doomed city.

The Crusaders and Venetians captured Constantinople easily, and treated the inhabitants, supposed to be their true Christian friends, with barbarities similar to those of the Huns, Vandals, or Turks.

Vast treasures they did take away so that all were rich. The amount of gold, silver, precious stones, and works of art lost by Constantinople was so great that historians do not try to measure the total.

Venice, up to this time prosperous and happy, made enemies by her treacherous attack on Constantinople that finally caused her downfall.

It was clear now that the true spirit of the Crusades was gone, and before long

the number of pilgrims dwindled, till few attempted the long, dangerous journey.

The influence on Italy, however, was lasting. The new ideas, the social progress, the mingling of races, and the great wealth she had gained from the Crusades, during the two hundred years from 1100 to 1300, made it certain that Italy was to take a prominent place in the affairs of western Europe.

THE GUELPHS AND GHIBELLINES

WHEN the feverish missionary spirit of the Crusades died away, a selfish, jealous spirit grew, which appears in the sack of Constantinople. It was the old Greek situation all over again.

Genoa and Venice, Florence and Milan, Rome and Naples, as well as other great cities, hated each other, and each did its best to gain wealth through the destruction of its neighbors.

With this jealous strife there also came a division into parties and politics that split all Italy. One side supported the authority of the Pope of Rome. They were called the Guelphs. The other supported the Emperor, who still claimed to rule Italy from his court in Germany. His partisans in Italy were known as Ghibellines.

The wars between these two parties were quite like the other wars of those terrible times. No mercy was shown to either age or sex. In these bloody conflicts, old men, young men, women and children, were not spared.

See what happened to Milan:

Milan was at war with Lodi, a neighbor city. The emperor, Frederick Barbarossa, took the part of Lodi. Milan refused to submit to his dictation. Calling on her enemies for help, the emperor marched against Milan, starved it into surrender, and massacred the inhabitants.

"Now," he said, "Let us make an end of this impudent brood. They wanted war, let them have it."

With this he divided Milan into districts, and assigned each part to the people of Lodi, and other cities that hated Milan.

At his command they set to work, and labored day after day with ferocious energy, till they had torn to pieces every building, excepting the churches, and

nothing was left of Milan but a heap of ruins.

The two parties continued this terrible strife, though later under different names, for several centuries, and their conflicts made it impossible for Italy to unite against nations about her, that constantly sought to triumph by her disasters and to profit by her loss.

THE CELL WHERE SAVONAROLA WAS IMPRISONED

REMOVAL OF THE PAPACY

AFTER a hundred years of aimless strife among the different cities in Italy, we come to 1308. This date is important, because in that year the pope, who was a Frenchman, decided to accept the invitation of the King of France, to move his headquarters from Rome to Avignon, in France.

There the head of the church remained for seventy years. Then the pope returned to Rome, where he has remained ever since.

WHILE the pope was in France a terrible plague, felt all over Europe, visited Italy with horrible results. This plague was known as the Black Death.

Pestilence was common in those days of ignorance and filth; and sudden death from disease was a common visitor in

every home, but the Black Death was a new and awful sickness.

Thousands upon thousands died during the middle part of the fourteenth century, until a quarter of Italy's population had been swept away.

LEARNING AND CULTURE AWAKE

As time went on, however, through the fourteenth century and into the fifteenth, a new flower blossomed in Italy.

The Romans had been coarse and greedy, interested in money, lands and property. For pleasure they arranged combats by gladiators or wild animals. Learning was little prized. Painting, sculpture, literature held small place in their ideals.

But now, with the rise of great cities, following the years of the Black Death, there appeared a group of nobles, rich, intelligent, and free, who began to patronize the fine arts.

Under this protection, the delicate blooms of artistic creation appeared in many hues.

Dante, the Florentine poet, wrote his

Divine Comedy, a story of a visit to Hell and Heaven. This work made his name great forever.

Following Dante, from 1400 to 1600, great painters, like Botticelli and Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael and Michelangelo, created immortal pictures. They made this age an epoch of art in their field never since equalled.

Savonarola, a great preacher, stirred the hearts of thousands to a higher, better life, and died, tortured by his enemies, before he knew the happy results of his sermons.

Wonderful buildings rose in Rome, Venice, Florence and other cities, to prove the powers of these great creative artists.

It was the dawn of learning and culture again, after the dark centuries of turmoil, following the fall of Rome.

COLUMBUS

1492

THE fifteenth century closed with the splendid achievement of Columbus, an Italian who lived in Genoa.

The trade routes to the east had now been closed by the Turks, who had captured Asia Minor and Constantinople. The trade of Genoa was dwindling, the city was rapidly losing its wealth and influence.

Columbus, a daring commander, and skillful sailor, believed he could find a new route to the east, and make his city rich again.

Under the patronage of the Queen of Spain, Isabella, he sailed west, west, west, and in 1492 he found America.

Columbus died unrewarded. Genoa did not become rich, but the voyage

opened the eyes of all Europe to a new world, of which they had never dreamed, and turned them from the east to the new lands beyond the western ocean.

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THE SHORE AT GENOA
Where Columbus sailed in boyhood days

ITALY IN FOREIGN HANDS

1500

While the independent cities of Florence, Venice, Genoa, and their like, had been rising to power with the impetus of the Crusades, and with new views of the world and life about them, other countries had been taking definite shape and growing into unified kingdoms.

England, France, Spain, and Germany, were no longer loose groups of warlike tribes, with uncertain boundaries. They were nations, under powerful rulers, unified to a large degree, and ambitious to enlarge their boundaries and possessions.

Italy, as a result of the civil wars of her cities, was now weak, and nearly helpless, and France, Spain, and Germany planned to divide Italy among themselves.

The French and Spanish kings made a

bargain, and each sent armies to the south of Italy.

They found no enemies there to fight with, so the King of Spain sent word to his general:

“I think we cannot trust the French. You had better act first.”

The Spanish then turned upon the French, and took over for Spain all the disputed possessions.

Then the Germans came down to attack the Pope of Rome. The pope had no army to defend him, so the Germans, supposed to be his Christian subjects, captured Rome.

The Germans showed such cruelty and brutality, that more harm came to the cherished treasures of art and architecture than had come to Rome from all the ravages of Huns, Goths, or Vandals.

These devastating raids continued for forty or fifty years, until the great nations were ready to rest for a time.

About 1525, we find the greater part of Italy in the power of the Spanish kings.

So she remained for more than a century, gradually recovering from the utter ruin brought upon her by long years of war.

She was a subject state, but happier and more prosperous than when she was torn with civil war. After all; there was little of either happiness or prosperity in Italy during these centuries.

Roger Ascham, a famous English writer, says of his visit to Italy about 1560:

"I thank God my abode in Italy was only nine days."

A PEASANTS HOUSE IN OSTIA
A seaport for the Roman navy, fourteen miles from Rome.

TWO CENTURIES OF WAITING

1560 TO 1780

UNDER the constant hammering of one enemy after another, both foreign and domestic, the lives of the people in Italy were almost without hope or aspiration. They longed only to escape murder or starvation.

During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the various Italian states developed slowly, under dukes and kings appointed largely by foreign powers.

By the eighteenth century, however, these rulers understood their duties better, and direct control from outside Italy grew less and less.

Spain was losing her weight as a leading power in Europe by 1700, and through the following century a new kingdom, Austria, took the influence over Italy that Spain had enjoyed a century before.

No great changes took place on the peninsula during these sad years. Little tyrants rose, got as much as they could from their abused people, and were finally driven out, or murdered, to give place to new tyrants just as bad.

In one province, however, Savoy, in the northwestern part of Italy, a line of rulers came into control which gave evidence of an intelligent desire to help their people to thrive and prosper. This line is today represented by the Royal Family of United Italy.

REVOLUTIONS

By 1775 the world began to bring hopeful news to the crushed, almost helpless Italians, as it did to the Greeks, under Turkish rule across the Adriatic.

"The Americans are revolting," one Italian whispered to another. "Can they win their independence? Wait and see."

Dreams long hidden deep in Italian hearts arose once more. These were dreams of a united Italy, ruling itself, free from foreign tyrants of every race.

"America is free," the voices said, after a year or two. The dreams grew brighter.

Then, after five years more, came sounds of shouting and tumult right at their very doors.

"What is that?"

"The French are revolting. They have killed the king, and are now murdering the rapacious nobles."

In Italy events moved rapidly. In 1796 the great Napoleon appeared, and in one swift campaign he crushed the armies of Austria, and placed Italy at his feet.

The old lines were now broken. Parts of Italy in the north were annexed to France. Cities were carefully sacked of their choicest treasures. Napoleon had swallowed Italy as easily as a chicken swallows a grain of corn.

This seemed enough for the troubled peninsula, but it was taking her swiftly forward to the goal of her ambitions. When the little kingdoms were broken up, a new idea of unity came into the land; and unity must be realized before freedom could be secured.

Napoleon built roads and bridges. He established laws and customs, not for different provinces in various ways, but for all Italy in one way. Since Charlemagne, ten centuries before, no ruler had so fostered a national feeling.

Then Napoleon was overthrown and

banished. The little princes came back, but with less assurance than before. They had to secure help from Austria. Austria saw to it that each revolt in Italy was promptly crushed, and the revolvers put to death or placed in prison.

But these conditions could not last. For nearly ten years the people of Italy had seen a great vision. A strong feeling of brotherhood had swept over the whole land. A sense of nationality never realized before expressed itself in the cry:

"Italy for the Italians."

THE DESPOTS ARE AFRAID

AUSTRIA now feared more than ever the effect of national ambition in Italy. Every king who held despotic power wanted to keep things in Europe just as they had always been. The nobles, rich through the slavery of the people, wanted also to keep things just as they were.

In 1820, the people in Spain revolted, and forced their king to sign a constitution.

Aroused by this, the people of Naples demanded a constitution from their king, like that of Spain; and this he swore to give them.

No sooner was the promise made, than the King of Naples was called away to a conference by the King of Austria. While the people were wondering what this meant, an Austrian army appeared. The people of Naples were attacked. Their

constitution was torn up, and hundreds of citizens were put to death or put in prison as criminals.

If the authorities heard of a man or woman breathing a single word of liberty, or a word of hope for a free Italy, death or imprisonment was the result.

But beneath this domination the people boiled with the fever of liberty. The more Austria, and her despotic puppets in Italy, spied, and persecuted, and killed, the greater the number of those ready to die for Freedom.

FOUR GREAT MEN

FOUR great men arose, during these years, to help their fatherland in the struggle for freedom. Three were citizens, Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Cavour. One was the Duke of Savoy, Victor Emanuel.

Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Cavour were about the same age, strong, brilliant, and fearless. They had one common aim in life, to free Italy, and unite her in one great country.

Mazzini was the dreamer who looked ahead, planned, plotted, encouraged. He went about Europe in constant danger for his life, whispering hope in Italy, and begging help in France and England.

Garibaldi was a soldier, a general so dear to Italian hearts that Italian eyes stream with tears at the mention of his name.

Cavour was a minister in the court of Victor Emanuel of Savoy. He was honest, courageous, a keen statesman and leader of men.

Victor Emanuel of Savoy was well named. Among the greedy, hateful, cruel rulers of his day, he stood forth striving honestly and constantly for the greatest good of the people in Italy. With an earnest desire to serve his countrymen, he gave his whole energy to building up a nation from the Italian fragments.

These patriots of Italy found, to their sorrow, as Greece had done, that they could expect very little help from other countries, and that their task must be performed by themselves alone.

No obstacles, however great, could hold them back. Year after year they labored on toward the goal they all desired, the unity and freedom of their country.

REVOLUTION

1848

By 1848 the feeling in Italy had spread so far, and grown so desperate, that even Austria could no longer repress it. One after another, towns, cities and states, revolted, drove out the princelings, and won constitutions.

Hope rose high in Italy. The day of freedom was dawning. Already the patriotic leaders could see the sun.

But trouble and confusion came from their own disputes and mixed-up plans. The people were not used to freedom, and knew not how to act. Unready to follow any leader, they were unable to act together.

The Austrian army rapidly swept over the whole peninsula. Bands of patriots were dispersed, the constitutions were torn up. Men and women, even children,

were cruelly put to death or were crowded into the prisons.

Through these troubled years the four great men, Mazzini, Garibaldi, Cavour, and Victor Emanuel, did their part nobly, and now they were ready to strive together for the freedom of Italy.

The work of Austria was thoroughly done. From coast to coast her troops swept away every sign of revolt, and held every hamlet in her bloody grip, excepting only the provinces of Savoy and Piedmont. Piedmont was the home of Victor Emanuel. His people were firm, determined, united; they were free to rule themselves, and were ready to help Italy in the fight for liberty.

Here in this corner of Italy under the mountains, people could dream and plan in safety. Here Cavour and Victor Emanuel could work together, while Mazzini and Garibaldi were risking their lives in the states controlled by the Austrians.

Victor Emanuel, at the urging of Cavour

and his friends, accepted a constitution, for his little Kingdom of Piedmont. A representative parliament was elected, and a government was organized, well fitted to carry out the ideals of intelligent and patriotic Italians.

When Austria threatened war, if Victor Emanuel did not abandon his methods of constitutional government and rule again as a despot, he replied:

“My people are willing to die for freedom. I am ready for exile if that must be, but this promise I have made, and I shall never break my word.”

He never did. Piedmont stood as a beacon light to all patriotic Italians.

CAVOUR THE STATESMAN

CAVOUR now became Prime Minister for Piedmont. He had lived in England. He knew the great men of Europe, and understood world politics. He now proposed a daring plan.

At this time, 1854, Russia was preparing to capture Constantinople, and to control the Bosphorus with a free opening to the Adriatic sea.

France and England entered into an alliance with Turkey to beat back Russia.

"Let us raise an army and offer to help France and England in their campaign," proposed Cavour, speaking in parliament.

No Italian state had ever dreamed of such an attempt. How can Piedmont make war as one of the great powers? Europe would laugh at us. Italy has never made war as a nation.

Cavour persisted. Victor Emanuel

backed him up. They made the offer, and the other nations, worried at their prospects of possible defeat by Russia, accepted.

It was a grand event for Savoy and Italy. The Italian troops fought hard, and helped to win the war. Cavour was admitted to the peace conference in Paris as a regular delegate.

When his turn came to state what Italy wanted as her reward, he said:

“The Italians want an opportunity to live in peace and freedom. Austria is the arch enemy of our people: She must withdraw from Italy, and let us rule ourselves.”

All eyes were turned on the Austrian delegate, but he declared that Austria must hold what she had in Italy.

Cavour talked with the English delegates, but found he could expect little help from England. Then he turned to Napoleon III of France. They talked long. The result was, a little later, an alliance between France and Piedmont.

WAR WITH AUSTRIA

SOON the word was whispered about in Italy:

"France has promised to help us against Austria. Let us be bold."

Arms were made ready. Austria, aroused at this, marched upon Italy. But Napoleon III of France had his army prepared.

"Fear not, brave Italians," he cried in a public meeting; "I will not forsake you till Italy is free from coast to coast."

Side by side, Italians and French defeated the Austrians in one battle after another. In a month, just after a great victory, Napoleon dismayed the Italians by meeting Austria's demand for peace.

"What does he mean?" asked the Italians. "He promised to set us free from coast to coast. The work is only begun."

Cavour resigned in a rage, but Victor Emanuel, cool, keen, self-controlled, did the best he could for Italy, and settled terms of peace, which, in spite of Napoleon's treachery, brought freedom into Lombardy, which was added to the Kingdom of Piedmont.

The saddest blow was to come. As his reward for helping Italy, Napoleon demanded of Piedmont the transfer to France of Savoy.

For the good of United Italy, but with a sad heart, Victor Emanuel ceded to France his choicest possession, the land of his ancestors.

Cavour joined in the agreement.

"The natural boundaries of Italy," he said, "should be her mountains. Savoy, with Nice, lie across the Alps from Italy. If France does not get them now, she will persist until she does get them."

Nice was the native city of Garibaldi. He could not see the wisdom of Cavour's policy, and declared he would never shake his hand again.

ITALY GROWS

THE loss of Savoy was a bitter loss to the Italians, but they had won more than they supposed. When the little despots of central and south Italy went back again to rule their states, they found that conditions had changed greatly since they left.

The people no longer dreaded the domination of Austria, and now felt free to speak of liberty. Austria had learned a bitter lesson, and would thereafter leave Italy undisturbed.

Soon the leaders in central Italy declared that they wished to join United Italy, under the rule of Victor Emanuel. After some delay this was accomplished, and in 1860 a parliament was opened by King Victor that represented over eleven million Italians.

GARIBALDI'S GIFT TO THE KING

THE upper half of Italy was now joined in one united kingdom, with a liberal constitution, under a king the people loved.

In the south, however, the despots still ruled. Gladstone, the English statesman, visited this land, and wrote a long report. The courts dealt not in justice, but in bribes. The poor were ground in the dust. Filthy jails were filled with people dying for food and air. Most of the prisoners were innocent, while the "crime" of many was that they had worked or had spoken for a free and united Italy.

These southern people did not try to join United Italy. They hardly knew about it. Not one in fifty could read or write. They had suffered so much, and

were so ignorant, that the spirit of independence had not spread among them.

But these poor people longed for relief, and United Italy, without South Italy and Sicily, would be only half a country.

Garibaldi determined to bring these lands into United Italy, as a gift to King Victor Emanuel, and to the new kingdom.

Garibaldi had fled in 1840 to South America to escape capture and death from Austria. There he served in the army two years, learning how to direct and control armed men.

In 1848 he had returned to Italy, and gathered a small force, hoping to help win freedom at last. But his little band was scattered, and the Austrians drove him from one refuge to another.

With his wife, a lovely girl he had married in South America, he suffered terrible hardships, and finally saw her die from exposure on a lonely mountain road.

Then Garibaldi escaped to America, where he worked for a time in a soap factory near New York.

Meanwhile Italy was growing stronger. The Austrians were losing their grip. Garibaldi heard that Mazzini had planned an uprising in Sicily. He hastened back to Italy, arriving in 1860.

Near Genoa he gathered a thousand men, all faithful and daring. With these he set sail for Sicily. There, after some narrow escapes, he succeeded in landing all in safety.

Sicily was ready for revolt.

"Garibaldi has come to save us! Garibaldi is here!"

The cry rang over the island. Palermo was taken, and one after another, other towns opened their gates to the hero.

The houses glowed with the colors of United Italy. The people gathered in the streets, weeping with joy. The awful jails were opened, and pale, dying ones, were brought out into the sunlight.

From Sicily, Garibaldi went to the mainland, followed by a large army of exulting patriots. There, as before, the opposing soldiers gave way, more than

glad to welcome the leader in the fight for freedom. Many of the king's troops joined his banners.

In Piedmont, Victor Emanuel and Cavour had watched events with growing joy. Now Victor Emanuel, seeing that some stable government must at once be set up in the south, started to meet Garibaldi.

It was a wonderful scene when the king and his devoted general entered Naples together, and added the south to the north of Italy in a united country.

"This," said the soldier to his king, "is my gift to you, and to United Italy."

When the celebration was over, Garibaldi, almost a god in the eyes of his brother Italians, and a large figure in the eyes of the world, went quietly back to dig his garden in his home at Caprera, leaving Victor Emanuel and Cavour to construct a government in the distracted land he had won with his sword

VENICE IS ADDED

PIEDMONT, several central states, and the whole south were now joined in United Italy. Venice and Rome were still left out. Venice was under Austria, and Rome was under the pope, who acted as temporal and spiritual ruler, and whose rule was maintained by an army from France.

Venice was the next to be secured for freedom.

Prussia had been watching Austria for years with a jealous eye. Now she planned her downfall.

Bismark, the prime minister of Prussia, said to Cavour:

“If you will help us in a war against Austria, we will see that you add Venetia to United Italy.”

Victor Emanuel had tried in every

honorable way to induce Austria to cede Venice to his kingdom, but all offers were refused.

"Yes," replied the Italian king, at last, "we must accept the aid of Prussia."

So a secret treaty was made, and in 1866 war was declared.

The Italian army was badly beaten by Austria, but Austria got a beating still worse from Prussia, and sued for peace.

Prussia kept her word. She demanded Venice from Austria, and promptly ceded that province to King Victor Emanuel.

Thus Venice, the city founded by the people of Lombardy, when they were flying for shelter from the Huns, more than a thousand years before, opened her gates and joined gladly to the Italian Kingdom.

At this time Victor Emanuel tried to persuade Austria to cede the lands just east of Venice, bordering the Adriatic sea, called the Trentino.

"These people are all Italian in the Trentino," he declared. "They wish to

join us. This is really Italian ground, and we should have it."

But Austria stood firm on this matter, and the eastern shore of the Adriatic remained under Austrian control till 1918.

ROME THE CAPITOL

Now all Italy was one except for Rome. Here was a great problem for Victor Emanuel to face almost alone.

The Italians longed to have Rome the Capitol of the new kingdom.

"Rome," said Cavour, "unites all the conditions, moral, historical, and intellectual, which form the capitol of a great state. It remains to convince the Holy Father that the Church can be independent without temporal power."

But the great statesman, Cavour, died, leaving this last difficult problem to be solved. King Victor must solve it alone, for Mazzini, the ardent republican, and Garibaldi, the rash soldier, could in such a matter be of no help.

Garibaldi, at the head of a volunteer army, started, in 1867, to capture Rome, as he had captured Sicily, but was held

back at the command of the king, who wished above all things to avoid war.

The popular applause, however, for Garibaldi showed the way Italian people felt.

Those living in the Papal States again and again begged the pope to give up the temporal rule to the king, but he replied to all these demands:

“I cannot.” He felt it his duty to stay at the post to which he had been assigned.

In 1870, however, when France was fighting for her life with Prussia, the French troops were withdrawn from Rome, and King Victor marched into his new capitol.

He was received by the people there with acclamations. At the walls of Rome the pope ordered a formal defence to be made, to show that he yielded his temporal rule only to force, and then retired to the Vatican, the palace where he dwelt.

The gates of the city were thrown open, and Rome, the ancient city, the center of the Catholic world, and a holy spot to

every Italian, became the capitol of United Italy.

The king and people showed their veneration for the pope by giving him every honor in his spiritual rule. They protected his great income, and provided for all his needs as a spiritual ruler. He still felt wronged, however, and Pius IX never left the Vatican again.

After his example, later popes remained strictly within the Vatican, making themselves prisoners there. In becoming Pope, the Head of the Church bids farewell to the outside world forever.

But signs indicate that this will not last much longer. After his accession, in 1922, the present pope, Pius XI, blessed the people of Rome from the outer balcony. This blessing was received by the Italians with joy, and with the hope that the old-time relations of cordial affection between the pope and the people of Italy were now to be resumed.

YEARS OF BUILDING

WITH the states of Italy united into one country, and the capitol brought back to Rome, the prayers of the patriots, Cavour, Garibaldi, Mazzini, and their associates, had been granted. The generous, gallant King of Piedmont had become ruler of the Italian people.

In 1848 this union had seemed to all the world an impossible ideal, a forlorn hope. The patriots succeeded against the foes of their country, because they worked and fought together in unselfish devotion to one great object.

Cavour, the builder, Mazzini, the prophet, Garibaldi, the fighter, and Victor Emanuel, the King, were as different as four men could be, in most ways; but all alike in one respect: They wanted nothing for themselves. Everything these noble men did was for Italy, and for the cause of freedom.

When the unselfish and patriotic purpose of their fight was realized, help came to them from England and from France. The liberty won for Italy marked a great step forward in the long contest against government by divine right, in other states of Europe.

From 1870 onward, much was to be done. Italy must be made into a strong, efficient nation, and the struggle was long and hard.

For thirty years the Italian people labored in the trough of the wave that had carried them to victory.

With the passing of King Victor Emanuel, and Cavour, the line of great men who had brought Italy so high seemed to have ended. Others, equally great, were not at once to be found.

Italy, like Greece, had vast debts and little income. Her people, uneducated and ignorant, were disappointed that prosperity did not come at once with freedom. It was not easy to live down the terrible conditions brought by centuries of slavery.

Her enemies constantly hoped and expected that Italy would be torn apart in the struggles of the various factions, but she did not fall apart. Instead, she slowly grew into a stronger and more unified state.

With growing apprehension, Austria saw her old servant, Italy, developing into a neighbor she must learn to respect. In spite of high taxation, bad politicians, and poverty, this patient, hard-working people advanced along the path of progress.

Finding little work, and small wages at home, thousands of young men left Italy for north and south America, where they secured work on railroads and in mills, and found also wider opportunities for their children.

These thousands sent money and ideas back to Italy from America. Both the money and the ideas served to raise the standards of the working classes in the homeland.

By 1900, the industrial prosperity for

which Italy had longed began to come. She found work for her people at better wages. In place of coal, which she lacked, she learned to use the water power that came in plenty down her steep hills.

Even the threatening volcanos were harnessed. Holes were drilled in the hillside and volcanic steam was led to engines and made to do productive work.

Courtesy Raymond & Whitcomb

MONUMENT TO VICTOR EMANUEL

THE GREAT WAR

During these years the people of Italy looked with longing at the lands about the head of the Adriatic, still controlled by Austria. The dwellers in this country were brother Italians, but they were under the domination of the alien and despotic Empire of Austria.

The time was coming when the door of their opportunity was to be opened.

In 1912 war broke out in the Balkan States, and this contest added to the strength of Serbia and Greece.

Germany and Austria aimed to control the Balkan Peninsula, and Austria asked Italy whether she would help her in an attack on Serbia; but Italy refused.

The next year, 1914, Austria decided to attack Serbia anyway, and the war of all Europe began.

Italy had been allied with Austria and Germany. This was a plan of the politicians, not the people. The Italian people still hated Austria.

In this European war, Italy, like Greece, at first remained neutral; but gradually the demand of the people, to join in the fight against their old time oppressor, grew louder.

While the politicians and statesmen haggled with Austria about the Trentino, and the other Adriatic districts, the people took matters into their own hands. They were determined not to lose the opportunity of attacking Austria.

The next year they voted for war, and a large army, well equipped, was launched against their ancient foe.

At first the campaign of Italy brought victory and pride to the Italians, and fear to Austria. Then the Germanic allies sent reinforcements and Prussian officers to lead the discouraged Austrians. Thousands of Italy's best men fell, and her people had to endure great privations.

Again as in past days, Venice prepared for siege and possible capture.

But the Allies hastened to Italy's rescue, and her frontier cities were saved.

Again, when the war was over, Italy profited much by her relations with other great powers.

In the peace settlement she won the Trentino, and also the peninsula of Istria, on the Adriatic, east of Venice.

THE TEST OF FREEDOM

When the great war ended, all was confusion. The people of Russia were lost in the throes of revolution. Austria, once Italy's proud master, had crumbled away till only the poor little Duchy was left, a beggar where once it had been lord. Her people also were in revolt.

What would the Italian people do? Would they join the red ranks of the anarchists? Would they overthrow their government and kill their leaders?

The red anarchists did their worst to influence the Italians, but they did not succeed. Fifty years of freedom had saved Italy, for Italy now belonged to the people. They did not serve the government; the government was their own. Slowly the people found their way. Thoughtful citizens calmed their excited brothers. Order followed confusion, and

Italy recovered from the shock of war, with its people still united.

Italy may look with some regret on the lost province of Savoy, but, as Louis Napoleon had emphasized, the people there were largely French, and they had, by popular vote, given their approval to the cession.

Italy is today mistress of the whole peninsula, and of the Italian communities on the shore of the Adriatic.

The boundaries outlined by Cavour, seventy years ago, have finally been exactly realized. Cavour traced with King Victor a line running along the Alps that divide Italy from Europe, and that is the line that marks her northern boundaries today.

Today Italy is beginning a new life. Her boundaries are settled in such a way that she has little to fear from wars with other nations. After two thousand years of war, and fear of war, she can be at peace.

Italy possesses within her boundaries

everything needed to develop national prosperity. She has a race of people who have given ample proof of high mental power, and of capacity for steady, constructive labor.

There is reason to expect from Italy that leadership in thought and achievement which the world so greatly needs.

FRANCE

THE GAULS

390 B. C.

IN 390 B. C. a tribe of barbarians came down into the north of Italy. They were great, powerful warriors, with light hair, blue eyes, courageous and proud.

The Romans thought they could easily destroy these men from the northern wilds, and made small preparations for defence against the Gauls, as they were named.

At the first attack, the Romans broke and ran for their very lives. They did not even dare stay to defend their sacred city, and in 390 B. C. Rome was sacked by the Gauls.

As a result of this attack the Romans decided that the Gauls were people to be feared, and to be conquered if possible.

These bold fighters belonged to Celtic tribes that bore the name of Gauls. They occupied a large portion of the land now covered by France, and spread over into Belgium, Switzerland, and northern Italy.

In these centuries no national boundaries were fixed. Tribes moved back and forth, as they conquered others, and were later themselves defeated. But the Gauls, who finally became an important element in the French nation, held the greater part of the territory which finally became the Kingdom of France.

RUINS OF A ROMAN WAREHOUSE

Oil and wine were kept in the huge earthen jars

ROME INVADES GAUL

As Rome grew strong, and built up colonies and conquering armies, she remembered the Gauls. By 200 B. C. the Romans were already pushing northward into the Gallic lands south of the Alps.

According to her custom, she colonized these districts. The Gallic tribes living there, cut off by the Alps from their relatives in northern Gaul, were not able to resist the Roman arms.

After they were beaten into submission, these southern Gauls were treated well by the Romans. They were strong in battle, and were given honored posts in the Roman army. They were intelligent, and were therefore given civil rights, and many were granted full citizenship.

Marseilles, then a Greek colony on the Mediterranean, was attacked by the Gauls from central France, not long after

this, and appealed to Rome for help. Glad of a chance for a new campaign into Gaul, Rome gave ready response.

Having found this district rich and fertile, the Romans pushed northward from Marseilles, until a large province had been added to their possessions.

Courtesy Raymond G. Whitcomb

THE ALPS

Across these snow-cled heights all had to go in ancient days, travelling
from Gaul to Rome.

JULIUS CAESAR IN GAUL

58 B. C.

WHEN, in 58 B. C., Julius Caesar was appointed consul, the Romans had been occupying Gaul nearly three hundred years. The large Gallic province they had conquered was now in danger from German tribes beyond the Rhine, and also from rebellious leaders among the Gauls. It was the hard task of Caesar to throw back the enemies of Gaul who pressed from without, and to put down the rebellion of warlike chiefs from within.

One after another, Caesar met the Germanic tribes from without, and, with wonderful success, as related by himself, he overcame them all.

The Gauls were glad at first to be delivered from these bloody German hordes; but when they learned that Caesar intended to remain, and to rule

the land himself, they were angered, and rose in revolt.

During six years, Caesar marched back and forth over Gaul, fighting battles and setting things in order. At last, after a campaign that nearly brought his defeat, he destroyed the last of the Gallic armies, and took the leaders in chains to Rome. Then all Gaul, from the English Channel to the Mediterranean, submitted to his rule.

GERMAN TRIBES RETURNING VICTORIOUS

THE GAULS PROSPER UNDER ROME

A SURPRISING change now took place in Gaul. Caesar had been a stern, cruel opponent. He now showed himself a generous, wise ruler. He admired the intelligence and high character of the Gauls. He took them into his army, and bestowed favors on them.

The Gauls, for their part, found the organized rule of Rome, with its peace and order, and safety from their German enemies across the Rhine, much to their liking.

They had lived formerly in continued fear of war, famine, and oppression. Now, though taxed heavily, and under a stern rule, their peace was secure, and their comfort greater than ever before.

Besides this, the Gauls were quick to learn the Roman tongue, and the Roman

ways of life. They even took Roman names, and finally gained Roman citizenship. They were too intelligent not to see that civilization was better than barbarism.

Roman arms subdued the Gauls, but Roman civilization made them happy; and in a short time the Province of Gaul, with her cities and growing towns, her schools and roads and bridges, was as much Roman as Italy was herself.

From that day to this the people of France have been distinguished by great intelligence, quickness in adopting new, better ideas, and a steadfast faith in their ideals of life.

During the period after Caesar's death, when Rome was spreading her civilization into Gaul, her own social organization was gradually going to pieces. Her citizens, accustomed to being protected and controlled by authority, became weak and helpless. Corruption increased, and taxes became unbearable.

Gaul suffered from all this civic decay

fully as much as any other part of the Roman Empire. The Gauls, once so strong and independent, also became weak, and unable to act without the direction of able leaders. The able leaders spent their strength in striving for power and wealth in Rome.

FROM across the Rhine, German tribes looked over on the people in Gaul as a cat would view a flock of unprotected chickens.

Soon after 400, these German tribes, crossing the Rhine on the ice in winter, descended upon Gaul. There was little fighting. The Gauls, desperate at their grinding servitude under Roman tyrants, welcomed a change of any kind.

The Germans were not destructive where they were not resisted. They filtered down into the Gallic valleys, leaving towns and cities quite undisturbed. Rome could do nothing now to stem this tide of invasion, and her old subjects in Gaul had little cause to regret the change.

The arrival of the German tribes was perhaps a blessing to Gaul in more ways than one, for in 451 a danger came that forboded terror and destruction to the whole land. The Huns, under Attila, came.

This fierce race from Asia had swept all before it, and now seemed about to exterminate the western peoples.

Against Attila and his horde of Huns, the Germans gladly joined forces with the Gauls and Goths and Saxons. In the great battle at Chalons, called the Battle of the Nations, Attila was defeated, and the Huns had to abandon Gaul forever.

THE FRANKS – CLOVIS

475

ALONG the Rhine another German tribe, the Franks, had been increasing in strength and numbers. Those Franks who returned from Gaul told how rich, how fertile, and how unprotected this region was.

When this news spread among the Franks, they packed up by thousands and moved in.

These Franks accepted no central authority. They went in bands of a few thousand, each ruled by a tribal chief. Unless he happened to be a man of unusual determination and power, his authority was restricted to what the soldiers were willing to give him.

Clovis was such a man. He was a king with a very small army and a very

great ambition. No sooner had he made himself at home in the north of Gaul, than he attacked a Roman governor on the south.

Clovis won this campaign quickly, and soon extended his domain over a large part of northern Gaul. He now looked about for larger fields to conquer.

Roman institutions, when the Roman Empire went to pieces, were in chaos. Most of them were shattered. The Roman Church, true to its traditions, true to its faith, remained steadfast. It was a rock standing firm in tossing waters.

In their march southward, the Franks came upon strange groups of men, who neither fought nor ran. Within their monasteries, they received the fierce conquerors with dignified calm.

"Who can these unarmed men be," said the Franks, "that fear us not?"

"We trust in our God, the protector of those who believe in him," replied the monks.

Stirred by this courage and faith, the

childlike Franks repaid their devotion with unexpected mercy and deference.

Greatly did the Catholic Church of Rome need all the respect and all the help it could get. The other German tribes, though many were already Christians, paid no allegiance to the Pope of Rome, nor to the bishops. The Roman Church in Gaul, brave and courageous as its members were, seemed on the verge of ruin.

"Perhaps," said the anxious bishops, "we can win these Franks to our cause, and make them allies of the Roman Church."

Clovis was one who roused their admiration. They sought his acquaintance and won his friendship. Next they introduced him to a lovely princess, Clotilda, who was a devout Catholic.

Clovis married Clotilda, and Clotilda converted Clovis to Christianity. It is related that in the great battle of Soissons, fought in 486, Clovis was on the verge of defeat. Suddenly he cried aloud that if

the Christian God would give him the victory he would worship that God forever.

The battle turned at once in his favor, and Clovis kept his word. He became a Christian, and his soldiers followed his example.

CLOVIS MAKES HIS VOW

THE NEW KINGDOM —FRANCE

CLOVIS had now allied himself to the strongest organized power in Gaul, the Roman Church. Thousands of brave people joined his standards. Battle after battle was won, till at last he was master of the whole territory south of Brittany.

Theodoric, in Italy, about this time, found a way to kill off every man who might revolt against his rule. Clovis did the same in Gaul. Not even a relative was left alive who might stir up revolt against him.

Thus Clovis, the Frankish king, conquered all Gaul, and built up again the Roman Church, which kept alive the best institutions of the old civilization. He brought under his control many provinces, welding them into one great nation, and that nation, from this time on, has been called by the name of France.

CLOVIS TO CHARLEMAGNE

511 TO 768

CLOVIS left his kingdom to four sons. They spread his boundaries wider than before, till their rule covered much of Germany. When they died, the kingdom was split up still more, and there was no such unity as it had possessed under Clovis.

These Frankish rulers all carried out, through murder and violence, the ideas of power that Clovis had developed. Unhappily they were without restraint of any kind.

The fact that they accepted the Christian faith did not stop them from plunging into the wildest kind of living.

No constitution could be strong under a life like this, and soon the line of Frankish kings began to fade. Illness

and early death overtook them. A number of their children were weak and deformed, both in mind and body.

These weak and futile kings needed help and advice. An officer, called the Mayor of the Palace, was appointed to help direct affairs.

Soon this official became more powerful than the king, and then began to control matters himself. The next step was to put an end to the line of kings descended from Clovis, and to grasp the power for a new line.

This new authority came to a great warrior and organizer, Charles Martel. Charles Martel struck blow after blow on all sides, till he had reduced to submission a great district, covering France and Germany.

The Arabs, from North Africa, had been overrunning Spain. They now pushed into France, and threatened to lay waste that land.

Charles Martel gathered a large army, attacked the Arabs furiously at Tours in

732, and drove them in a rout back into Spain.

This exploit makes his name famous, for he saved Europe against a cruel foe.

Charles Martel left a son, Pippin, who carried his domains to wider boundaries still. Pippin made friends with the Pope of Rome, helped to build the power of the Church, gave to the Pope large tracts of land he had conquered in Italy, and is remembered above all other things as a protector and supporter of the Roman Church.

RUINS FROM THE LATEST WAR
All that is left of a beautiful church in northern France.

CHARLEMAGNE

768 TO 814

CHARLEMAGNE, the son of Pippin, inherited sole leadership in this great kingdom while he was still a young man.

Charlemagne began at once to push out the borders of his kingdom. No year passed without some campaign. Britain, France, Italy, Germany, and parts of Spain, all bowed before his mighty arm.

He was a fierce, even a cruel conqueror, but a wise, generous, considerate ruler. Defeated nations were dominated with all possible consideration for their development and advantage.

Charlemagne supported and watched over the people of the Roman Church in all parts of his kingdom, with generous

care. . He helped the monasteries to raise their standards of culture and learning. He was a student himself, and fostered learning among his subjects. In the year 780, he called to his capital from York, in England, the scholarly monk Alcuin, who was charged with the preparation of an educational system for the Empire.

Under the wise rule of Charlemagne, his vast empire settled into a state of peace and prosperity more complete than in any period since the best days of the Roman rule.

One day when Charlemagne, being in Rome, knelt at prayer, the pope quietly stepped up behind him and placed a golden crown upon his head, proclaiming him Emperor, and head of the Holy Roman Empire.

The act was applauded with cries of joy by the throng in the church, while the thousands on the streets showed real delight.

The respect and confidence Charle-

magne won from the mixed and scattered races under his rule was a proof of greatness reached by few leaders in the history of the world.

THE RISE OF FEUDALISM

WHEN Charlemagne died there was no one strong enough to take his place. His sons and grandsons fought among themselves, and soon the great empire broke up.

In France there was confusion. No central power existed to protect citizens, to carry out the laws, to keep back foreign invaders.

Strong men, however, here and there, rose to protect their own lands, and the people living on them. These princes built fortified castles, organized little armies, drilled their troops, and afforded their dependents a good measure of safety and prosperity.

It was only natural that others, seeing this good fortune, should wish to share such comfort in times of danger.

“If you will protect us, they said, we will place our lands and our services at your disposal.”

Or it might be that the strong princes, knowing their strength, said to the neighbors:

“Place your lands and your services at our disposal, and we will protect you. If you do not, we shall have to drive you out and place others there who will do as we wish.”

Whichever way it began, there was no better plan for either peasant or noble. Only strong groups under capable leadership could exist long in rough times like those.

As a result, after the ninth century, France came to be covered with dukedoms and counties. In each of these little realms a reigning family held sway. They lived in fortified castles; and around them were the fields of lesser nobles and small land-holders.

The people who occupied the land paid to the lord in the castle tribute from

their farms. They also raised soldiers for his army when he went to war. He was at war most of the time.

In his turn the lord pledged to protect these dependents from violence both domestic and foreign. He held courts of justice, settled disputes, made laws and rules of conduct, and watched over the safety and prosperity of all his feudal retainers.

In this way was developed the social organization called the feudal system. It arose from the necessity of securing protection when no central authority was strong enough to assure protection, and it lasted, not only in France, but in Europe and England also, during several centuries.

There was always some prince who claimed to be supreme ruler of France, and was called the King, but in this period the King often had less real power than some of his proud feudal subjects.

When national kings were powerful,

the petty rulers had less authority, but when the central government was weak, the lords in their castles were as haughty and independent as any king.

FEUDAL TOWERS

Deep in the dark, damp dungeons of the lower floors, lay prisoners, kept there by the hatred of a feudal lord.

THE NORMANS

THE Northmen, who set sail in great numbers from Scandinavia, during the period we now study, found the lands in northern France much to their liking.

The people in France had no greater success in driving them out than did those of southern Italy, during this same period. Of all the races in Europe, these Northmen were for centuries the most dreaded in battle.

After the death of Charlemagne, the Northmen came in ever increasing numbers, and proposed to settle in France, to make it their home.

Seeing no hope of driving them out, the French king granted them lands in the north of France on condition that they swear allegiance to him, and that they become Christians.

The Northmen agreed to all this, and

organized a state, called Normandy. There they held control for many centuries, playing an important part in the history and in the life of France.

Although they had secured a home on the Seine, groups of these adventurous Normans continued to make expeditions for plunder on the coasts of Germany and Italy, and in the eleventh century, secured control of Sicily.

THE BASIN OF APOLLO, VERSAILLES, FRANCE

THE HOUSE OF CAPET

By the year 900 a new influence began to work in France.

The land had been broken up more and more into small divisions, ruled by independent nobles. It seemed as if no power could unite these provinces again into a single kingdom.

Then a family in the north of France developed remarkable powers of leadership, that were finally to perform this miracle. That family was known as the house of Capet.

The Capets held in their own right the rich lands about Paris on the Seine, and domains on the Loire. This made them rich and powerful.

The Capets came to be regarded as the rightful rulers of France. This secured for them a certain respect and support, which went with that title.

Beside these two advantages, the Capets had the support of the Church. The Church of Rome longed to see a united kingdom in France, and gladly joined forces with the Capets to bring this about.

The first task was to compel the nobles throughout the royal domains to obey the king, and this was no easy work. Behind their walls and towers these nobles, many of them robbers and murderers, defied the king.

Year after year, however, the Capets kept up the fight. Castle after castle was stormed, the defenders were killed or captured, and the poor prisoners, for these castles always had dungeons full of starving men and women, were set free. Then the castle would be destroyed.

In this way the kings of the House of Capet forced their nobles to obey them, and brought order into their domains.

While this went forward, plans were always on foot to enlarge their direct holdings of land, and thus increase their wealth and their armies

Year after year, through a long series of centuries, this wonderful house held firmly to its course. The families of Clovis and Charlemagne, demoralized by excesses and bad living, disappeared; but the descendants of Hugh Capet were strong enough, generation after generation, to carry on the policies of the House.

MOUNT SAINT MICHEL, NORTHERN FRANCE
Surrounded by quicksands, and by water at high tide, this rocky town
has resisted with success all attacks by a foreign foe.

HOW THE CRUSADES HELPED

THE Crusades, beginning about 1100, helped the Capets to build a nation in France.

The people then were divided into three classes.

The clergy, all who served the Church, were called the First Estate.

The nobles, men who did no work, but who fought in battle, were called the Second Estate.

The men, both serfs and freemen, who labored to support the clergy and the nobles, were called the Third Estate.

The Crusades put a stop, by general agreement, to most of the local fighting in France. This left the nobles with little to do. They were excited by the thought of going to campaign and to plunder in strange, rich lands, so great numbers joined the Crusades.

Idle, unsteady, adventurous men of the Third Estate would naturally also be eager to take part in these expeditions, and the retainers enlisted in great numbers with their lords.

The nobles with great estates would wish to leave at home sober, industrious, trustworthy people to take care of them. In a number of instances, the wives of the nobles were left in charge of the castles and the estates, and some of these women proved very capable executives.

Through these crusading expeditions, it came about that rebellious nobles, and restless men from the laboring Third Estate, left France in great numbers, and thousands of them never returned. The nobles who did get back to France were seriously impoverished.

Meanwhile the leaders of the Capets decided that they were needed more in France than in Jerusalem. It was their great opportunity.

Many estates, that were left without

their lords, were brought under the direction of the crown, and the serious, industrious workers, left at home, became staunch adherents to the King of France.

PHILIP II

1180-1223.

PHILIP II was a Capet who did so much to develop France, and to raise the fortunes of his house, that his reign is entitled to a story by itself.

Philip II was fifteen when he became king. At that age he took the field against his foes, and soon had swept all the northeastern part of France clear of dangers to his crown. He organized the districts as he won them, and at once appointed officers of his own choosing to govern the conquered domains.

Philip wished greatly to get Normandy, and other parts of France, away from the English king, Richard I, known as the lion-hearted. Richard was, however, more than a match for Philip in war, and was the victor in each contest.

Richard at last started out to take

part in the Crusades. Philip also agreed to go, but returned before reaching Palestine, and plotted with John, Richard's unworthy brother.

"You wish to steal away your brother Richard's kingdom," said Philip. "But if he returns, who then will save you? Give me Normandy, and I will support your cause."

To this John agreed.

The two conspirators learned with delight that Richard had been captured in Austria, on his way back from Palestine, and was held prisoner. Both Philip and John hoped he would be kept in prison, but some months later, there came the news that Richard had escaped. Richard resumed his throne in England and promptly started a campaign against Philip. Richard was successful, but died in battle, in 1199, leaving John king of England.

Philip's turn had now come. He soon found ways to entrap the insolent and faithless John, and within a few years

all the English lands in France, north of the Loire, including Normandy, fell into the hands of the French king, and became parts of the new French nation.

THE LITTLE SAINT LOUIS IX GIVING ALMS

THE ALBIGENSES

ANOTHER movement, that brought more power to Philip II, was the persecution of the Albigenses, who held provinces in the south of France. The Albigenses were classed as heretics. Heretics were people who did not worship as the Roman Church commanded.

The bishops warned these people to worship in the Roman way, but they held to their own customs. Then a terrible persecution took place.

Armies were sent against the heretics, and they were overcome and slaughtered. Men, women, and children died without hope of mercy, because they did not worship as they were told.

The province of Toulouse was, after the massacre, left without leaders, and it quickly came under the control of King Philip.

Philip had by 1220 made himself so much more powerful than any rival, that none dared to oppose him, and he was becoming King of France in fact as well as in name.

All through the north of France there were no longer dukes of this, or counts of that, or lords of so-and-so, who were strong enough to defy the king. Their titles they could keep, but their power was gone.

The lords in their feudal castles had for the most part made life miserable for the common folks. The highways were unsafe, and at any moment a traveller might be attacked, robbed, perhaps killed, or thrust into a foul dungeon, and held for ransom or revenge.

Under such conditions, trade between the towns could not develop. Philip overcame the robber barons, made the roads safe, and enabled trade to multiply. Northern France became prosperous and contented, with wealth and comfort far greater than it had ever before known.

THE RISE OF TOWNS

DURING the period while the Capets were building the French nation, a change was taking place among the people.

In old Roman days towns and cities, well built, well arranged, and at first, well governed, were dotted here and there through Gaul. The Franks cared nothing for town life, and, with the constant wars that covered the land, these towns and cities disappeared.

While feudal barons fought and robbed to please themselves, there was little chance for towns to grow, and the working men could only labor in the fields.

When the roads became more secure, and property was protected, the desire for trade and town life could be gratified.

Gradually those who liked to trade, to keep stores, to make cloth and shoes and

hats, and other needed articles, gathered more and more into towns and cities.

The Capets found that these towns and cities increased their wealth and power, so they helped to make them prosperous.

Under Philip II, by 1200, these towns in France had grown until they took an important part in the national life.

As the cities grew stronger, the feudal barons became weaker, and thus the growth of city life helped to develop the strength and unity of France as a nation.

SAINT LOUIS IX

1226-1270

LOUIS IX, known as Saint Louis, a grandson of Philip II, became king at the age of nine.

The nobles, seeing a child on the throne, eagerly joined in a rebellion against the crown.

Philip II had, during his rule, made the national authority strong. Now the nobles no longer possessed their former power, but they thought they could overcome the child king, Louis IX, and regain their old independence.

The nobles did not know the capacity of the mother who watched over the fortunes of her boy. So quickly and so cleverly did she act, that the nobles were divided, were set to fighting among themselves, and were soon forced to accept the authority of the young king

The queen mother watched anxiously over the education of Louis IX. She was a pious, loving, intelligent woman, and trained her boy to be a pious, loving, conscientious king.

As Louis grew up, he showed that he was able to protect and to govern his kingdom. Foes from without were forced to stop their attacks on France. Foes from within learned to respect his strength, and honor his justice and generosity.

"I wish to protect my own lands and my own people," he said. "I wish to have nothing that does not belong to me, and I wish to see all men happy and at peace."

Philip II, his grandfather, had built up and consolidated the French nation. Louis IX did not add much to the lands of France, but he organized and developed the spirit of the kingdom.

He found France with a loose, weak government. The people did not trust each other. They received but scant justice from the courts and judges.

Louis IX worked day and night to see that better laws were made, better judges appointed, and that justice was done to all.

"What is right must always be done," he said. "The poorest peasant in France must be assured of justice as well as the greatest noble." If Louis found a great man doing wrong, that man was punished, no matter what his rank.

Louis IX made his name for honest justice so famous that kings in other lands came to seek his advice, and ask him to judge between them.

The Roman Church blessed him for his pious, devoted life, and, to honor his great virtue, made him a saint.

Louis IX found the kingdom of France still weak and disorganized. He gave it good laws, and forced all to obey the laws, and to recognize his authority as king.

Under Louis IX the French people learned to trust and respect each other more than ever before, and to place their allegiance to their country and to their king above all other ties.

THE END OF THE CAPETS

1328

DURING the fifty years after the death of Saint Louis IX, in 1328, several kings followed. They did not greatly change the boundaries of France, nor did they greatly change her laws or customs.

The respect for the central government, represented by the king and his court, gradually increased. The power of the king to raise taxes to pay his officials, and to support his army also gradually increased.

The people of France were learning to think more of their ties to their king and to the nation than of the lords who ruled them at home.

The number of serfs, who could be treated almost as slaves by their lords, was growing less and less. The number of free men, who could own property, and

enjoy the rewards of their own efforts, grew more and more.

The Capets had now ruled in France, in direct succession, from father to son, for three hundred and fifty years. France owed more to this long line of kings than any other nation owed to any other royal family.

The Capets had found a land ruled by hundreds of lawless nobles, where life could hardly be endured; and they had given millions of these people a central government, covering a large portion of France, with common laws, common languages, common customs of life, and a common opportunity for safety and comfort.

But the death of Louis IX, leaving no son, brought the line of Capets to an end.

Under the French law, no daughter could inherit the throne of the king.

Henry III, King of England, claimed the throne because his mother was a daughter of a French king. His claims were denied by the French council, for

France did not wish to be ruled by a king of England.

At last they decided to give the crown to a prince of the house of Valois, Philip VI.

THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR

1338 TO 1435

WHEN Philip VI came to the throne, in 1328, war clouds hung deep and dark over France and England.

In the first place, Edward III, now King of England, claimed the throne of France, because he also was a descendant of the royal line. He actually ruled a large district of France, as his own inherited estates.

The French denied his right to the throne, and longed to take every foot of French soil out of his control.

In the second place, Flanders, which is now Belgium and Holland, had become a rich manufacturing center. Flanders was under the rule of France, but did most of her trading with England. Flanders made woolens, and depended on England for her wool supply

“You must trade mostly with the

French people," said the French king to Flanders.

"If you don't give us most of your trade," said England, "we will cut off your wool supply."

Poor Flanders had to obey England or close up shop.

War between England and France was the only way of settling such disputes in those days, and war they had. It was a terrible war, that lasted so long it was called The Hundred Years War.

Unhappy France! Her nobles began to fight among themselves about who should be king. This gave the English a good chance to attack.

Edward III decided that he must have a French port to use as a landing place, during his campaigns. In 1346 he marched to attack Calais.

The army of Edward III was small, and a great force of French cavaliers pursued them. At Crecy the English halted to give battle. The French viewed them with great contempt.

“See the infants, all on foot. They are just peasants,” cried a French leader. Grown men usually fought on horseback in those days. •

With that the French nobles, on their splendid horses, in their splendid armor, without organization or direction, charged on the English infantry.

They were met by a storm of arrows, shot from the English long bows, coming swift and true as bullets. Never before had the French met such fighters.

Horses and nobles fell in tangled masses on the plain. They never got close enough to the English bowmen to do them great harm, but died by thousands in their charge.

So Edward III won the battle of Crecy, and marched on to capture Calais. The courageous people defended their city against Edward III for almost a year. Then famine overcame them, and they were driven from Calais with great cruelty.

This gave the English a port in France that they kept for two hundred years.

In 1356, the Black Prince, son of Edward III, led another English army, and attacked France from the west. Again a great force of French nobles attacked, sure of their success against an English army of footmen, hardly a fifth their number.

Again a storm of arrows flew into the faces of the horsemen. Again they fell by thousands, dying before they could reach their foes to strike. This battle of Poitiers was another famous victory, won by the Black Prince, and his English bowmen, against the French.

France now suffered terribly. Her country, torn by wars among her own people, and overrun by English armies, was laid waste. Starvation and despair settled over the people, who knew not how to save themselves.

BERTRAND DU GUESCLIN

A NEW figure now appeared in France. In 1365, Bertrand Du Guesclin became a leader in the French army.

Fabius, in Rome, had wearied and discouraged the great Hannibal by following him from place to place, never giving battle, but never letting Hannibal rest.

"Let us wear out these English," said Du Guesclin, when he became general. "They have better soldiers than ours, and could probably defeat us again in pitched battle. But we can follow them about, and keep food out of their reach. They will grow weary at last."

So it turned out. Du Guesclin followed the invaders with an army. When the English advanced, the French retreated. When the English retreated, the French again pursued.

Small groups of English soldiers, as they went in search of food, were from time to time captured. At night the English would be kept awake by fear of attacks.

At last the tide turned for France. City after city, that had been captured by the English, was retaken again by Du Guesclin.

The English grew weary of such expensive warfare, and in 1380 asked for a truce. They then retired from France, having lost all their possessions in that country except a few fortified cities.

CIVIL WAR IN FRANCE

Freed for the time from the English oppression by the clever and gallant Du Guesclin, the French, instead of building up their shattered country, began to fight among themselves.

Several families wished to obtain the crown and to rule in France. Murders, furious deeds of cruelty, war to the death, came to be part of the French daily life.

With knowledge of these conditions in France, Henry V, then King of England, decided that a fresh opportunity had arrived.

The people of England were none too quiet or contented themselves.

"If I go to war with France," said Henry, "I can surely beat her now. My people will forget to fight each other if I set them to fighting the French. After

a successful campaign in France I shall be popular at home."

It all turned out just as he hoped. The French, exhausted with fighting, and famine and disease, had no strength left with which to repel the forces of Henry V.

In 1415, at Agincourt, famous in history, Henry gained another victory like those of Crecy and Poitiers.

The little English force was confronted by a French army more than three times as large. The French, sure of success, openly showed their contempt for Henry's army, but they suffered a bitter defeat, with terrible slaughter.

Meanwhile the French princes murdered each other, in their greedy strife to gain wealth and power.

Henry V, with none to oppose him, marched on taking cities and provinces, till he had nearly all France at his mercy.

At last, by a disgraceful treaty, Henry V became actual master of France, though he did not take the title of King.

THE DAUPHIN

In the south of France were a few cities that refused to recognize this shameful treaty. Charles VI, the mad King, died in 1422. His eldest son, the Dauphin, who had fled to Poitiers, was then proclaimed King of France, Charles VII.

Charles was weak, ignorant, and timid. He did little to lead his followers on to better things, but they stirred up enough rebellion to anger the English.

"We will go south," said the English generals, "and will teach those people a lesson they will not soon forget. They must be made to understand that we are masters of France."

In 1428 the English marched to capture Orleans, the one large city which still supported the cause of Charles VII, and the crown of France. After the capture of Orleans, it would be easy to bring under

control the remaining territory of the South.

The people of Orleans were courageous and determined; and through a long winter, they defended their city against the invader. The English drew their siege lines closer and closer about the city, while famine and disease made the people weaker and weaker.

Was there no hope for France? Her large cities, all but Orleans, were in the hands of the English. Her great families were fighting among themselves, and seemed to care nothing for France. The King, Charles VII, made feeble plans for this, and stupid schemes for that, but accomplished nothing.

The kingdom was without a leader, without hope, without courage, without confidence in any soul who could raise the people up and save the country from complete national ruin.

JEANNE D'ARC

Jeanne D'arc was born in a village in the province of Champagne, near Orleans. In 1428 she was sixteen years old.

Jeanne had always been a religious child. During two or three years she had heard voices from heaven. They told her of her great mission, to save France.

For a long time she said nothing of these voices, but she was filled with spiritual rapture and patriotic zeal.

At last the voices said the time had come for action. She must go to the king. She must ask for soldiers, and must use these to save the people of Orleans.

Of course her parents held her back, and the village friends thought she was out of her head.

“What can a slight and feeble maid of

sixteen do in war against the English?" they cried. "It is nonsense."

Jeanne begged them to help her, but she begged in vain, so she silently stole away from the little home she was never to see again.

First Jeanne went to the camp, where the king's army lay. There she begged so ardently, and made such a deep impression with her devotion, that they gave her an escort and sent her to King Charles VII, who was then at Chinon.

Through every danger on the road she went secure. When she reached the king they tested her in many ways, for they were suspicious of all strangers.

But Jeanne triumphed in every test. All questions she answered with such wonderful skill that some actually believed she was guided by the saints in heaven.

"Give me soldiers. I must save the people of Orleans. I must save them. Oh, give me soldiers."

Day after day she pled before the king.

He kept putting her off, but at last she had her way.

Jeanne D'arc was given a war horse, a suit of white armor, a white banner, and a group of retainers. With these she led a small army against the English, who besieged Orleans.

As Jeanne D'arc advanced, with her white armor and banner, more soldiers joined her ranks. They told stories of her spirit helpers, and all took fresh courage.

In Orleans all was black despair. The food was gone, sickness and starvation covered the city.

Suddenly one evening the people heard sounds of fighting outside. They rushed to the gates. Yes, an army was fighting its way through the English lines.

Then, in through the gates and the city streets rode a maiden at the head of a troop. In the glare of the torches they saw her white banner and her gleaming armor.

Close behind this splendid figure came

great wagons laden with food. In the flaming lights Jeanne seemed to these despairing people like a saviour sent straight from heaven.

Soon the stories of this wonderful girl spread all about the city. The people went nearly mad with excitement.

"She will lead us. She will save us. She shall be ours, the Maid of Orleans," they shouted in the streets.

With the food and hope brought by Jeanne D'arc, these people were made like new. Instead of dying like rats in a trap, they rushed to arms, and, led by Jeanne D'arc, they attacked the English.

On their side, the English, hearing of this wonderful maid, and seeing her with her gleaming armor, and white banner, at the head of her troops, took fright.

They said that Jeanne got her help, not from heaven, but from the Devil himself, and they had small hope of winning against a limb of Satan.

Furious, but afraid, the English finally gave up the siege of Orleans and hurried

away, leaving their baggage and provisions behind them.

The French were now aroused, and the English were discouraged. Inspired by Jeanne D'arc, the French took city after city, until at last Reims fell into their hands.

"Now," said Jeanne, "let us crown King Charles in the great cathedral at Reims, and my work will be done."

So at Reims Charles VII was crowned, and was accepted as the rightful King of France, while Jeanne D'arc knelt beside him, tears of joy streaming from her eyes.

Jeanne then wanted to go back to her mother, but the French thought she could help win them more victories.

She consented to continue her services, and in a small skirmish she was captured by the Duke of Burgundy.

After several months spent in vile prisons, Jeanne D'arc was sold to the English, who hated her, and wished her death.

The English persecuted her in a long

proceeding, which they called a trial. They charged her with being in league with Satan, and they finally, in 1431, condemned her to death by fire.

Did Charles VII come to her help? Did he try to buy her back from the English? Did he offer to exchange other prisoners for her? Did he send comfort and support to this fainting, dying maid, who had won for him the kingdom and had saved France.

No. Charles VII left her to her fate, and simply took the credit to himself for all that had been accomplished by the inspired maid.

The flames that rose about Jeanne D'arc in the market place of Rouen ended her life on earth, but they did more than to burn that frail body. Into the hearts of countless millions the blazing glory of a poor peasant girl, who died for the country she had saved, has been burned so deeply that it shall never be forgotten till the end of time.

THE END OF THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR

1449

The English hoped by the death of Jeanne D'arc to turn the tide again in their favor, but it worked just the other way.

Jeanne D'arc had inspired her people with a new patriotism, new hope, a new feeling of national pride and unity.

In her death this feeling became far more intense than in her life. The interest in an inspired peasant girl grew into the worship of a martyr, who centuries later was to be accepted as a saint.

Those nobles who had been at war now came together, and agreed to accept Charles VII as their king. Then they drove the English to the coast, and out of France.

In 1449, France, inspired by a maiden

who freely gave her strength and her life for her country, asking nothing for herself but the chance to serve, had thrown off foreign domination and was once more an independent nation.

Courtesy of Raymond G. Whitcomb

ORLEANS CATHEDRAL, THE CHOIR IS DISMISSED

THE PASSING OF FEUDALISM AND OF KNIGHTHOOD

AT the end of the Hundred Years War, that is by the middle of the fifteenth century, great changes were taking place in France.

The knights, who had once made the armies of France so powerful, were fast losing their importance and were passing away.

In the battles of Crecy, Poitiers, and Agincourt these nobles had been slain in thousands, on their chargers, by English peasants on foot. First the long bow, and then gun-powder, had come into use, making the lances worth little as weapons of war.

The knights had held their proud positions for centuries because they could fight so well, and were so well protected by their armor. Now the peasants had

proved themselves their equals, and the knights were no longer masters in battle.

After the end of the Hundred Years War, the feudal knights pass from history.

Story and romance tell of their chivalrous, noble deeds, but romance is, after all, only romance, not history. In reality most of these nobles were arrogant, greedy, cruel tyrants, and it was a happy time for France when their power came to a close.

A new group now came into places of prominence in France.

Before this time, only nobles had been thought fit to hold places of honor in the councils of the king. Now the kings were learning that the wisest, best men in the kingdom were among those who worked for their living.

During these years of national reconstruction, from about 1400 to 1600, we find an increasing number of business men, bankers, traders, manufacturers, rising to places of power and distinction.

The king learned to depend on able men in whatever ranks he found them, and chose men of humble birth if they suited his needs.

Courtesy Raymond & Whitcomb
THE TOWER PRISON OF JEANNE D'ARC

PAID ARMIES AND TAXES

In feudal times the king could call upon his nobles for support in war. They in turn demanded service from the retainers who lived on their estates. These fighting men would gather, more or less as they pleased, and form an army. Leaders would then be chosen, and off they would go, without much drill or discipline, to fight till they got tired.

The battles of Crecy and Poitiers and Agincourt showed how useless this plan was.

"If I am to make successful war," said the king, "I must have an army ready to obey my commands. It must be drilled and disciplined by experienced generals."

So, instead of a lot of soldiers who came and went almost as they pleased, the king gathered a regular army, which

would be at his service, and under his pay, at all times. This army was trained for war by skillful officers.

Such an army cost great sums of money. Taxes had been raised by the king in a small way for a long time, but now he organized a definite plan of taxation which covered the whole kingdom.

Instead of feudal services, the people were now called upon to pay taxes in money.

Unfortunately these taxes were laid so that the burden fell upon the working classes. The nobles and the rich tried to lay the entire burden of taxation on those who could least afford to pay.

In order to make people more willing to pay taxes, and to serve the crown in other ways, the kings during this period would call together, now and then, a congress of representatives from all classes of the population.

These delegates represented the clergy, the nobles, and also the common people. Such a congress was called the Estates

General, because it had members from the clergy, or first estate, the nobles, or second estate, and the commoners, or third estate.

The members of the third estate, after the Hundred Years War, had a great deal to say about unfair and oppressive taxation, but they were not trained to act out their ideas, so talk was about all it amounted to for many years.

The taxes of the working classes kept them desperately poor and bitterly angry. Century after century France moved on as a great nation, always with a poor and discontented working class.

FOREIGN CONQUEST

ABOUT 1500

After the Hundred Years War there were years of great disturbance in France. Change and confusion follow all great wars.

Feudalism was passing away. Nobles, who saw their power and privileges slipping from their grasp, made desperate efforts to retain their position and control.

For some years France was torn by anarchy and civil strife. Then gradually the central power of the king drew in one section after another, till he again stood supreme in a country well united and controlled.

The king had now a new power that was to give his personal control greater strength than ever before. His standing army could be used to enforce his decrees.

Dukes and Princes had no large forces now, and the time when they might rise against the crown had passed.

With France at peace and prosperous, and with his army ready at his call, no king in these days was content to mind his own affairs. War and conquest became his chief ambition.

It seemed as if every king looked about him and said: "Now let us see. What can I seize, and whom can I despoil?"

For many years Italy offered the French kings a good field for conquest. Italy was broken into many fragments, the land was undefended, and the trained French army had, in 1499, an easy task in forcing its way through to Naples.

But this brought France little or nothing. Germany and England and Spain were jealous. They wanted their share of the plunder. When France found these enemies rising against her, she had to retreat empty handed.

For many years French kings kept up

the effort to hold rich cities in Italy, but the campaigns brought little to their country except enormous taxes in money, and heavy losses of men.

Courtesy Raymond & Whitcomb

SPINNING IN BRITTANY

THE RENAISSANCE

France gained little from her Italian campaigns in the way of lands, or gold, or political power, but she gained in another way, in treasures of the mind.

From 1100 to 1200 the Crusaders, going into new lands, brought back ideas. So now, in 1500, the French, returning from Italy, also came home with new ideas.

In Italy, poets were writing exquisite verse, painters were creating wonderful pictures, and architects were building cathedrals and palaces in a new and beautiful style.

In Italy, the arts were coming into new life and glory. The French, always quick to appreciate excellence in any form, were eager to adopt these new forms of art and literature, and to master them.

Francis I, then King of France, invited Italian artists and Italian writers to his court in Paris, and rewarded them generously. He also rewarded Frenchmen who won distinction in art and learning.

Under this inspiration a great change took place in France. Formerly the nobles had no interest in learning, but left all that to clerks and clergy. The common folk had no way of getting education, even if they wished to learn.

The printing press now came into use, and, for the first time in history, books were printed for the use of all.

The nobility now felt proud to have books, and were proud to read and write. The common people, for the first time, could also own books, and read the wonderful stories of the Greeks and Romans, which had been lost to all Europe for centuries.

All over France a new life was thrilling the minds and quickening the thoughts of this intelligent, brilliant race.

The age of the body, of dull, sordid

life, was passing. The age of the mind, of life beyond their narrow horizon, had begun

This movement is called the re-birth, or in French, the renaissance. It was the re-birth of learning, after a long age of ignorance.

NAPOLEON, AN AWKWARD NOVICE AT MILITARY SCHOOL

RELIGIOUS WARS IN FRANCE

1550 TO 1600

Since the days of Clovis and Charlemagne, the Church of Rome had controlled the religion and the education of the French people.

In Germany Martin Luther had protested against the customs of the Roman Church. He declared that all men should read religious books and should learn to discuss and understand for themselves matters of religion.

In France, with the spread of books and learning, these ideas found thousands ready to adopt them. Such people were called Protestants, because they protested against the restraint of the Roman Church. They were in revolt against the old order of things, and contended that men were free to read, to discuss, and to decide for themselves matters of religion.

Protestants and Catholics could not agree, so they fought savagely, each to prove that his own faith was the better. These struggles developed rapidly about 1550, and spread all over France.

The Kings of France had always been Catholic, and supporters of the Roman Church. They did not approve of the heretics, the name then given to all who differed in belief from the Catholic Church.

In those days, if the rulers disapproved of people, they persecuted them. So they persecuted the Protestants. Some were hanged, others were drowned, and still others were burned.

Persecution, as it almost always does, increased the numbers and the faith of the Protestants. Before many years they became so numerous that persecution seemed useless.

"If all these heretics are hanged," said the rulers, "we shall have few people left."

Ambitious nobles, seeking for power and wealth, now saw a chance to get

thousands of Protestants to fight for them.

"Here we are, good friends, true Protestants, ready to protect and lead you," they said to those of the common people, who had been so persecuted.

Other nobles, honestly believing in the new faith, also joined the ranks of the Protestants.

Made strong by these leaders, and burning for revenge, the Protestants struck back, and civil war began

CATHERINE de MEDICI

The outstanding name connected with these wars of religion in France is that of Catherine de Medici. She had come from the famous de Medici family, the rulers in Florence, to marry the French king, Henry II.

The king died, leaving young sons. The queen mother, Catherine, was made regent, and for many years governed France.

The plan of this clever queen was to play off one party against the other. She feared the Catholic nobles, lest they grow too strong, and at first gave protection to the Protestants, to win their support.

For a while this policy worked to her advantage, but the bitterness of both parties rose far beyond her control, and throughout France was war, murder, and devastation.

At last Catherine de Medici decided that a bold stroke must be made to win security for herself and her sons. She joined closely with the Catholics, and planned the murder of every Protestant she could reach.

The plot was laid, and in the evening of a summer day, Saint Bartholomew's day, in 1572, the signal was given for the attack.

The massacre began in Paris, where hundreds of Protestant leaders had come to celebrate the wedding of the king's sister. All night, and through the day following, the streets were filled with the shouts of the mob. "Kill all. Kill all!"

Thousands of the best sons and daughters of France perished through that bloody plot.

"There," said Catherine de Medici, when she saw the results of her cruel massacre, "now we shall hear no more of the Protestants."

But Catherine was wrong. Even this terrible persecution had only made the

Protestants more bitter and more revengeful than before.

Soon the two parties were again at war. Eighteen years later, people of Paris, who had killed so many Protestants on Saint Bartholomew's day, saw at their gates a great Protestant army; saw their food vanish; ate dogs and cats and rats; saw their children die by thousands; and paid an awful penalty for their cruel murders.

At last in 1594 a strong, wise king, Henry IV, came to the throne. He had been a Protestant, but turned Catholic, to secure peace for France.

Henry IV knew and understood the Protestants. He also could understand the Catholic point of view. Under him a treaty was made which expressed new ideas, never known before in European history.

Both Catholics and Protestants were to have the right to worship and teach their doctrines.

In England the Protestants, being in power, had persecuted the Catholics. In

Spain and Italy the Catholics persecuted the Protestants. In Germany, where the two parties were more nearly equal, the issue took the shape of a great war which lasted thirty years.

France now showed her great advance in culture and toleration by giving to both parties a right to live in peace. France seemed to agree with Henry IV when he said:

"I believe that both doctrines have much good in them."

NAPOLEON A CAPTIVE

After years of glory he goes to die a prisoner on a desert isle.

REBUILDING FRANCE

HENRY IV—1600

France had been torn with war more than thirty years, when Henry IV became king. A million people had been killed; the land was nearly as desolate as after the Hundred Years War. The people were poor and despondent.

Fortunate France. Henry IV was entitled to the throne by birth, but he secured the kingdom because he was the man best qualified to rule the people. The nation greatly needed a strong, fair-minded leader, and she found in Henry IV the most capable of all the kings who had ruled France.

Henry IV found himself surrounded by greedy nobles who had hoped to be independent princes, like those of Feudal times.

Some of these he turned into friends by

favours and gifts of money. Others he punished. Before long he had subdued them all, and made his own power supreme.

The working people were groaning under terrible taxes. The nobles and the clerics had claimed freedom from taxes. The merchants and the poor were paying practically all.

Henry IV surrounded himself with able, earnest ministers. "We must give our people a chance to live and be prosperous," he declared. So the lords were forced to pay a share of the expenses of the State.

Taxes in that day were farmed out, as in the Roman days. The king would need, let us say, fifty million francs. A noble would be appointed head of a tax district, and would be made responsible for raising fifty million francs.

This noble would select deputies, and would sometimes compel each one to bring him so much money that he would have in all a hundred million francs, half for himself and half for the king.

But these deputies did not work for nothing. If they collected a franc for the lord treasurer, they also collected something for themselves. Thus, to get fifty million francs for the national treasury, three or four times that amount was taken from the people.

In spite of jealous lords and deputies, Henry IV was able to change this method. He arranged the taxes so that, while the people paid much less than before, the national treasury secured far more.

Encouraged by this relief, the workers labored with greater zeal. Agriculture flourished, manufactures increased, commerce developed, and France rapidly became more prosperous, more unified, more happy than ever before in her history.

Henry IV called a meeting of the Estates General to discuss national matters. A deal of talking was done, and many opinions were offered, but no agreement could be reached.

The ideas of the Third Estate were the

most valuable, but they had no way to secure consideration for their propositions. The Estates were finally dismissed, leaving complete authority with the King.

Henry IV proved equal to the task. He made France prosperous, rich, united, and was just about to undertake a campaign against Austria, to assure France of safety and strength in that quarter, when, in 1610, he was assassinated.

Thus ended the reign of a remarkable king, who had given his days to the up-building of his kingdom, and the prosperity of his people.

FRANCE SHOWS HER POWER

CARDINAL RICHELIEU

Louis XIII, the son of Henry IV, was a sickly boy when he became king, and was always a weak, moody, fickle ruler. His one wise policy was to place in power and to keep in power a man who proved one of the greatest ministers in history, Cardinal Richelieu.

When, in 1624, Cardinal Richelieu became a prime minister, he found much to be done.

The Protestants, called Huguenots in France, had carried their organization so far that they were no longer a simple religious body, organized for worship in the Protestant faith. They were trying to set up a state of their own, independent of the king.

“If they succeed in doing that,” your

Majesty," said Richelieu to Louis XIII, "France will be broken in two."

The danger could not be overlooked, so Richelieu demanded full obedience to the King. When the Protestants refused, he attacked them, and crushed their cities beyond any hope of defying the king again.

But no religious rights were at that time taken away. The Protestants were left with freedom to worship as they wished.

- Apart from the Protestants there were many nobles in France ready to dispute the royal authority.

Surrounded by opponents who hated him, and planned for his destruction, Richelieu overcame one group after another, until even the courts of law dared not give a verdict in important cases till the king consented.

Richelieu made the power of Louis XIII so absolute in France that he could destroy the proudest lord, or raise up the humblest peasant.

He drilled a great army, built a strong

navy, and laid taxes on the people till they groaned beneath their weight.

“Your majesty, we have enemies abroad who plot against us. France is strong and united. We must defeat the foreign powers.”

So French spies filled every court, French gold bribed nobles and political parties in Spain, Germany, Italy, and England, to revolt and weaken their countries.

At last the French army took the field, and France forced her neighbors to recognize her power, and surrender much.

At this time Louis seized from the German Empire the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine.

When Richelieu died, in 1644, after twenty years at the head of France, he had made King Louis XIII a complete despot, had unified the energies and resources of his country, and had made France a leader in the policies of Europe.

THE GILDED CENTURY

LOUIS XIV

1643 TO 1715

Louis XIV became king at the age of five, upon the death of his father, Louis XIII. The queen, his mother, was appointed regent, to rule until he grew up. Upon this, many turbulent nobles at once stirred up old quarrels, hoping to weaken the crown, and win some profits for themselves. The trickery and greed displayed by some of those highest in the state was sad to see.

It was common in those days for a noble to start a rebellion and then agree to submit, for a large sum of money, which was often paid.

Cardinal Mazarin, trained by Richelieu, was made prime minister till the king became of age. He was a strong leader,

and soon ended the civil wars stirred up by selfish nobles.

Mazarin then continued the French policy handed down by past kings. France must grow great and strong. Other nations must be made small and weak.

In this policy he had success. France was strong, unified, and provided with a large army. Step by step a city was taken here, or a province was captured there.

Cardinal Mazarin died when Louis XIV was a young man. "Hereafter," said Louis, "I shall have no minister. I shall myself be ruler. Bring all matters directly to me."

Thereafter Louis XIV did just as he said he would. He was an able man, for his day, and so conceited in his pride that he was ready to dictate all things to all men.

Politics, commerce, art, letters, social customs, were all directed by the opinions of this despotic monarch. No other king in Europe ever had the power wielded by Louis XIV.

In France his will was supreme. Courts of justice decided all questions, not by right or wrong, but as the king or his favorites wished. Hardly a bird dared lay an egg without special permission from the crown.

People who offended the king or his favorites disappeared suddenly, never to be seen again. Few were bold enough even to whisper a single word against his majesty.

In other countries Louis wished to have the controlling influence. He longed to rule Europe as a vast French Empire.

It happened that at this time England, Holland, Austria, and Spain were weak and disunited. France, with her great generals, and splendid armies, could win victories everywhere.

Louis determined to use his opportunities. He fought four important wars, all to win greatness for France. The last of these, the War of the Spanish Succession, was to place his descendants on the throne of Spain.

So great was the power of Louis XIV, at one period, that he almost made good his ambition. Even cities in Italy, which refused to do as he said, were bombarded and treated with barbarous severity.

He bribed King Charles II of England to support France. He attacked Holland, which had been for years a good friend to France. He separated Austria and Spain, with battles and bribes and trickery.

Steadily France grew greater, at the expense of others.

Had one asked the French then, "Whom are you serving?" They must have replied, "We serve no one. All the world must serve us."

Historians, poets, romancers, call this the golden age of France, but it was not golden, it was only gilded.

At court, nobles, lovely women, famous artists, rich tradesmen gathered in a gay glittering group.

Over France was spread a multitude of people, nearly starving to pay the enor-

mous costs of the great army and the brilliant court. Taxes once more were farmed out, and hundreds of grasping officials fattened on the hungry people.

At court, the ambassadors of all the world, in their richest dress, flattered the vain monarch, and sent to their governments suggestions for his destruction.

In France, Louis was teaching his people to hate kings, Abroad, he was raising a host of bitter enemies against his country.

LOUIS XIV IN THE FOREST

When the king spoke with a member of the court, all others stood
apart.

GLORY FADES

Louis XIV, with all his ambition, failed to see vast opportunities to make France truly great.

In America, the French explorers had won Canada, and, with help from home, might have won also the great west. But, in his eagerness to get lands in Europe, Louis neglected the opportunity for empire in America.

Louis had thousands of Protestants in his realm. They were skilled, industrious, able, of the middle class on whom the nation depended for its strength and wealth.

But Louis XIV was a Catholic, and these people did not worship as he wished all his people to worship.

"Am I not lord over all my people?" said Louis. "Let them worship as I direct. I say it for their own good."

The Protestants still preferred their own faith. Then Louis sent soldiers to force obedience. Hundreds were killed in cold blood. Their rights and privileges were taken away.

In desperation, thousands of Protestant Huguenots packed up their goods and escaped from France. Some went to Holland, some to England, some to Germany, and many to America.

These Protestants had been among the most useful citizens of France. By this persecution Louis greatly weakened a land already sadly crippled by war and famine.

When Louis XIV died, in 1715, after a reign of seventy two years, he left a country weak from war. He left a people on the verge of ruin, with enormous debts and intolerable taxes. He left a group of nations about his country who had learned to look upon France as a devouring giant, ready to swallow all in its path

DANGEROUS YEARS

LOUIS XV, 1715 TO 1774

Louis XIV had reigned seventy two years. He left the nation deep in debt. His great-grandson, Louis XV, was to reign fifty nine years, and to leave the nation still deeper in debt.

Debt, loans, taxes, poverty. Money, money, money, and the dire want of money. These had become the themes of France.

After 1700 in France we see the splendid pomp and luxury of the court, and the idle nobility, in sharp contrast with terrible misery and want among working people.

Children had so little food that many died, and those who grew up were prematurely old.

One plan after another had been tried

to raise taxes and keep up payments due on the enormous national debt, but no measures could squeeze more money from the famished people.

DOLL'S BATH
Children of the French mountain region.

THE MISSISSIPPI BUBBLE

IN 1716 a Scotchman, John Law, appeared in Paris. He was a trained banker, a student of finance. He urged the authorities to let him try a new plan.

"If you will let me handle your money," he declared, "I can make France the richest nation in the world. We must give more credit and issue more money, so that people can trade freely."

Matters could not be worse, so they tried Law's plan. He was skillful, and soon won confidence for the bank he started, and its paper money.

This done, he formed a vast company to trade in America. It was called the Mississippi Company, and was to have sole rights of trade all throughout the region of the Mississippi Valley.

The Mississippi Company secured from the Crown monopolies in selling tobacco,

and in trade between French America and Europe.

Rumors and wild tales spread through France about the gold and silver, the precious stones and rich furs, that filled the region of the Mississippi.

Stock in Law's company rose rapidly. The price doubled and doubled again as new buyers hastened to invest.

Then Law paid a dividend from money he received for shares. The Company had earned no such dividend, but he had plenty of cash from the sale of stock.

When news of this spread, the people came to Paris in crowds to buy stock. From London, from Vienna, from Holland and Italy, those who longed for sudden wealth rushed to Paris.

It seemed as if France might become, as Law had promised, the richest nation on earth.

But the gold and silver and precious stones did not return in shiploads from the Mississippi region.

The investment was earning nothing.

The great Company could not pay its debts, and after two years was obliged to close its doors.

This undertaking was called the Mississippi bubble. When it burst, thousands were ruined. John Law himself lost everything. With all his shrewdness, he found there were some things he did not understand.

THE PETIT TRIANON

A Rustic cottage where Marie Antoinette and her court ladies lived as dairy-maids.

COLONIES ARE LOST

In America, in Egypt, and in India new lands of vast wealth were opened during these years when Louis XV ruled. England had now come to be the great rival of France for control in these colonies.

Gifted by nature with all the qualities that make bold, persistent explorers, the French people had spread into all these lands. In America she now held Canada and the valley of the Mississippi, with a portion of the gulf of Mexico.

In 1740 war broke out between France and England. France had her mind so much on conquest in Europe that she made little effort to protect the territories her pioneers had won. India and Egypt fell into English hands. In America, through these wars, she lost everything except the territory along the Mississippi.

To gain a trifle in Europe, France lost

colonial possessions which she thought then of little value. By securing India and America, England soon made herself the most powerful empire in the world.

Historians have called Louis XV the most contemptible king in the history of France. Few French kings led lives of personal purity, but that of Louis XV was of the lowest standard.

He surrounded himself with evil women, who practically controlled national affairs. Millions in money, that should have gone to pay the public debt, went into the pockets of these creatures.

So France went on, from bad to worse, till in 1774, just as the American Revolution was beginning, Louis XV died. His death was received as a public blessing by the people of France.

THE American Revolution roused great interest in France. There the common people thrilled with the thought of a republic, and the ending of evil courts and rapacious nobles.

Benjamin Franklin came to France as

envoy of the new Republic, and won all hearts. "Let us help these honest folks who fight for liberty," they cried.

France did help. She loaned Franklin great sums of money. She sent General LaFayette and other officers, with troops and ships, and took a large part in the victory that came to America in the end.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

1789

THE French people had now endured more than most people could stand. By nature they loved their kings, and admired the glories of a splendid court; but a monarch like Louis XV had made clear to thousands the terrible dangers of despotism.

As Solon said, in ancient Greece. "Despotism is a fine idea, but there is no way out."

Although slavery and serfdom had, in theory, passed out of French life long before this, the condition of the working classes was as bad as slavery. Nobles could, and did force starving servants to work on their estates without pay. They could and did flog them, wound them, and even beat them to death, with no fear of punishment for such deeds.

Law, taxes, labor, were for the poor only; the nobles could do as they pleased. There were not many nobles in France who were not followed by looks of hatred, and threats of deadly revenge.

Louis XVI was a king of good intentions, but of feeble mind. After trying in vain several schemes for improvement, he consented in 1789 to call a session of the Estates General.

The Third Estate, for the first time in its history, was led by able men. Against all opposition the Third Estate forced the king and nobles to make sweeping reforms.

The king at first consented. Then he listened to the nobles and tried to change back again. At this the people were aroused. Hundreds of nobles were put into prison. Hundreds more fled to Germany and England.

Then Louis XVI himself tried to fly from France. He was captured, and, with his entire family, was placed in the Temple prison.

Now the escaped nobles raised armies

and marched to attack the people's party in France, and restore the king to his throne.

When they saw that Paris might be taken, the people went mad with fear and rage.

Should they lose all they had suffered for so long, and be thrust back into their old miseries?

Howling mobs surrounded the prisons where the nobles were kept, and most of them were murdered. Later the king was tried and sent with his queen, Marie Antoinette, to the guillotine.

Thus begun, the work of execution went on day after day. All who might be suspected of a thought against the revolution were in danger of death.

FRIGHTENED at the horrors in France, several states of Europe joined in an effort to overcome this reckless people, and restore the rule of kings.

But the French rose in a wonderful effort for the defense of their country. New forms of government were organized.

New armies were raised, and the French were finally successful in all directions.

Land all about their borders was taken by their armies. First they plundered these districts, and then turned them into little republics on the French model.

But the French people had learned little about government and self control. They quarrelled in their council meetings. They tried first one committee and then another.

All their schemes resulted in worse confusion. France was drifting rapidly into utter bankruptcy, into complete ruin.

It was clear that if the new France should face its enemies and live, some strong, central control must take command.

NAPOLEON

FORTUNE brought to France the man she needed at the moment of despair.

A young general had made himself a popular idol by his wonderful campaigns. This general was ambitious. He knew his power with the people.

"Now is my time," he said. "By a bold stroke I can become leader of my country." The man was Napoleon Bonaparte. He made the bold stroke, and became the leader in France.

Never was a leader more popular. Never did a leader deserve popularity more than Napoleon.

At first he acted as first consul, after the old Roman plan, but soon his power became so great that he took the place and title of emperor.

During a period of peace, just after

1800, Napoleon made France into a new nation. He restored prosperity, and laid just taxes. He remembered the poor and aided them. He organized schools and colleges. He took the Catholic Church, which had been nearly destroyed during the revolution, under his protection. Other creeds were also protected.

Meanwhile Napoleon planned to make himself master of Europe. Again war broke out. With an army of veterans devoted to their leader, Napoleon marched into Austria, into Germany, into Italy, into Spain.

Victory after victory came to his armies. Everywhere he looted the cities, sent back vast loads of treasure to Paris, and then organized many conquered lands as French dependencies.

His brothers and sisters were made rulers in Italy, Spain, and parts of Germany.

Intoxicated with power, Napoleon paid no attention at all to rules of right or wrong. He wished to rule Europe, and

stamped with an iron heel on all who stood in his path.

His former devotion to democracy and the people disappeared, he became as despotic and greedy for power as any king had ever been.

At last he gained such power that England alone remained outside of his control. The English navy saved her from invasion. Napoleon did indeed rule Europe. But it was the rule of the sword. He was not serving Europe; he made Europe serve him. Hatred grew. Enemies sprang up. All these people waited their chance to strike back.

This chance came speedily.

Russia declined to stop all trade with England, as Napoleon demanded, and he decided to make an object lesson of Russia for such disobedience. With the greatest army ever assembled in modern Europe, he marched into Russia, in the autumn of 1812.

As he advanced, the Russians retreated. He took Moscow, but the Czar did not

ask for peace. Napoleon waited several weeks. Moscow was burned by the Russians. Cold weather was coming. He knew he must retreat.

Winter caught the army. Thousands died on the road, and only a few struggled back to France.

At this all Europe rose in revolt against the ambitious emperor. He made a vain effort to conquer again, but his valiant fighters were now gone. He, like Louis XIV, had ruined France with victorious wars.

Hurled back on every side, the French soon surrendered. Napoleon, in 1814, was exiled by the allies to the little island of Elba, where he was allowed to rule as king.

Louis XVI had been guillotined, and his little son, Louis XVII had died in prison. A brother of Louis XVI was now made king, as Louis XVIII.

But Louis XVIII was a mean figure after the great Napoleon, and within a year the people began to long for another

change. They did not object to a king, but they hated the old ideas of favorites and privilege, which again controlled the policies of the court.

In April, 1815, Napoleon escaped from Elba. He landed in France. He showed himself to the soldiers, who shouted with joy. As he approached Paris, thousands joined his standard. The King, Louis XVIII, fled before him and Napoleon was once more master of France.

But England, Prussia, and Russia moved fast. At once armies were marching towards Paris. With his old skill, Napoleon attacked and strove to destroy the foe.

All his brilliant cunning came to naught, for Napoleon no longer had men of youth and vigor. His armies were weak. In the historic battle of Waterloo, in 1815, he was defeated and crushed.

Napoleon was now sent far away to St. Helena, a rocky island off the coast of Africa, and there he died six years later, in 1821.

CONFUSION

THE great empire of Napoleon was now broken apart, and France was restricted to the boundaries of 1790. But the conquest of Napoleon had continuing results in Europe.

The old kingdoms that he broke up, the old lines of kings and princes that he dethroned, never could return to their former condition. New ideas, and new conditions made progress for democracy easier and more rapid throughout Europe.

Although the monarchy was restored, France was full of revolution, and the plan worked badly. Fortunately for Louis XVIII, he died soon. His successor, Charles X, had less success than Louis XVIII, and he was driven out in 1830.

Then a third ruler, Louis Philippe, was chosen. Louis Philippe helped to form a new constitution, and ruled in a more democratic way. He hung on for eighteen years, till 1848, when a new revolution overthrew the monarchy.

"Now let us try a republic again," said the people. They were learning very, very slowly, after centuries of political slavery, the art of self-government.

So they made their constitution over again, and decided to have a president. Louis Napoleon, a nephew of the great Napoleon, was chosen for the first president.

Louis Napoleon was a schemer. He was just as full of pride and ambition as his uncle, but, instead of being a great genius, he was a man of little talent for doing anything well.

In 1852 he took advantage of the confusion in France, and got himself elected Emperor of the French. The people were prosperous, however, and preferred his rule to the former confusion,

so they worked hard, rebuilt their cities, improved agriculture, built railroads, and made France into an active, progressive, modern nation.

His success in the war with Austria in 1859, when he helped Italy, and took Savoy for France, led Louis Napoleon to land an army in Mexico, hoping to place Maximilian of Austria on the Mexican throne, and then dominate the policies of Mexico to suit himself.

The United States was in the midst of the Civil War, in 1862, when the French landed, and could do nothing but protest. Louis Napoleon paid little attention to this protest then, but when, in 1865, the United States, with a powerful army ready for action, told France that her troops must be withdrawn at once, the outlook was very different.

The French were attacked by Mexican troops, before they could safely withdraw, and were defeated. Maximilian, as a penalty for having murdered Mexican citizens, was put to death, and the expedi-

tion proved a humiliation for Louis Napoleon.

Instead of vast wealth, that he expected to bring back from Mexico, a sickly discontented army returned, to stir up trouble in France.

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

1870

As years passed the emperor developed self-seeking qualities which brought him more and more into disfavor with the people of France. It became evident that the national policies were being shaped, not for the welfare of France, but for the personal advantage of Louis Napoleon.

Louis decided that it was desirable, in order to divert the minds of Frenchmen from criticism of their own government, to start a foreign war, and in this way strengthen national patriotism.

Prussia had been making trouble for France, and Louis Napoleon decided to make war on Prussia.

In Prussia was a great statesman, Bismark, the prime minister. After the wars of Napoleon the Great, he had helped to make Prussia into a strong,

central state, under a despotic rule. His armies were drilled to perfection. He knew that France was unprepared for war, so he did all he could to get Louis Napoleon to declare war.

Prussia had never forgotten the attacks of Louis XIV, and of Napoleon the Great. When war began, the Germans rushed into France, and, almost before they knew what had happened, the French field armies were captured, along with the emperor.

Thus ended the second empire. Prussia demanded an enormous sum of money, and the district of Alsace-Lorraine.

With bitter hearts the French paid the money and gave up the land.

A new republic, then formed, was laid on wiser plans and firmer foundations than those that had gone before. The people had learned that perfection could not be expected, and that they must bear much, and struggle hard, even under a republic. After two generations, that republic still endures.

THE · WORLD WAR

1914 TO 1918

ON her eastern borders France had two rivals. One was Austria, with which she had fought for generations. The other was Prussia. Prussia, rising from the many little states broken down by Napoleon, had constructed the autocratic empire now called Germany.

Germany had a far greater population than France. Germany had a great army, every man subject to the direct command of the Kaiser. Germany had an ambition to rule that was as great and unrestrained as that of Napoleon, or Louis XIV.

As the years rolled on, it became more and more clear that Germany intended to use her splendid army to increase her power and possessions. Those in France who understood the true situation trem-

bled in their shoes. France made her army as strong as she could.

Treaties were negotiated with England and with Russia, to join the resources of the three countries into united defense against the threatening foe.

In June, 1914, Austria made insulting and impossible demands on Servia, a state which Russia was under obligations to protect. This issue could have been adjusted if Germany had been willing. It became evident, however, that Germany, which had for months been making preparations, was now determined to bring about war.

By July her armies were marching through Belgium, whose neutrality Germany had sworn to protect, into France. England and Russia came promptly to the support of Belgium and France.

The campaigns that followed continued for four years. Belgium had been impoverished by the German occupation, and its resources had been appropriated. The northeastern provinces of France

were devastated, not only by the destruction which is unavoidable in active campaigns, but by deliberate destruction on the part of the German armies of occupation.

In April, 1917, the United States, indignant with the absolute disregard that Germany had shown for international law and for the principles of humanity; indignant also with the use that Germany had made of the submarine, for the sinking of merchant vessels, and for the murder of their crews and passengers, declared war against Germany.

At the time when America's army was in readiness, the defensive lines of France had been nearly overcome. The forces of the French and of the English armies were exhausted from their long struggles.

The arrival in France of the first million of the American troops brought, not only fresh fighting force, but the encouragement and the hope that were so much needed by French and English alike, to enable them to continue the struggle.

The help that had been given by France to America in its hour of need in 1777 was now being returned to the great Republic of Europe. The privilege came to America of being the decisive factor in the war, but had it not been for the struggle maintained during three years by the armies of France and England, there would have been no war for Americans to come into.

The German Kaiser had been quite outspoken: "When I have gotten through with Europe," he said to the American Ambassador retiring from Berlin, "I shall square accounts with America. Germany can no longer put up with the American insolence which forbids German colonies in the Western Hemisphere."

In August, 1918, the German armies were finally overcome, and the German commanders sued for peace. The German Kaiser, fearing the wrath of his people, fled into exile.

But France still trembled. She drilled her army. She still made preparations to defend herself.

“Germany is beaten today. Who knows when she may attack us again?” said France.

President Wilson, of the United States, joined by leaders of other countries, worked hard to form a League of Nations, that should agree to stop all wars among themselves, and protect nations when they were attacked.

Practically all the nations engaged in the great war, among the winning allies, and many other nations, joined in this league. The Congress of the United States, however, refused to support President Wilson in the initiative that he had taken, and declined to accept membership for the United States.

Since 1918 the league has continued its work, and, while not yet accomplishing all that had been hoped from it, or all that would have been possible if the United States, the greatest and strongest nation in the world, had joined, it has helped to adjust a number of grievances, which under other conditions would have meant war.

There is still hope that some organization may bring together, and may keep together, in a Family of Nations, all the civilized states of the world.

France was still afraid. She asked that England and America join in a promise to protect her if she were ever attacked again. This they undoubtedly will do, but all agreements, all leagues, will fail unless a new spirit shall grow in France and other European countries.

France lives in mortal dread of her German neighbors, just as they lived in mortal dread of France a hundred years ago. The French feel that only a weak, crippled neighbor will be a safe neighbor.

That is what Sparta thought. That is what the Italian cities thought. That is what Germany was trained to think. But that idea has never yet borne happy offspring to any nation.

The fact that Germany is now a republic, is greatly in favor of lasting peace. When the national policy is con-

trolled by those who pay the taxes, the risk of war is much reduced.

As yet no way has been found to assure France of safety except through a great army. But so long as France maintains a great army, the rest of Europe will view her with suspicion, and she will be held back from the quiet and comfort she greatly desires.

These years will be critical for France. She has resumed her place as the leading nation of Europe. With her colonies, in Africa and Indo China, every need for a great national development is gratified.

History would say to France today: "Your future fate will be decided by the service you can render. If you can win the friendship and esteem of your fellow nations, by deeds of generous helpfulness and service, fear not. They will not let you fall. They will help you in the future as they have in the past, and yours shall be the reward of happiness, of peace, of greatness among the nations of the earth."

GERMANY

THE EARLY PEOPLE

THE people who founded Germany came originally from the plateaus of Asia, and gradually pushed farther and farther west.

The Celts and Saxons, who went into England; and the Franks, who settled in France, belonged to the Germanic group.

In the deep forests and valleys, that lay behind the Alps and beyond the Rhine, thousands of these rough, stalwart people had made their homes during the years when the Roman republic was rising to power.

The German tribes, called Goths, came into close contact with the Romans. After the days of Caesar they were taken by thousands into the Roman legions, for they were powerful fighters.

The home life of these people was simple and rude. They lived on meat and coarse bread, having few delicacies or luxuries. But they were affectionate and faithful in family relations, and loyal to their tribes.

The German tribes were led by chiefs who gained power to rule through their ability and strength. All warriors could express opinions and help choose or dethrone their kings.

As time went on the Goths became better and better acquainted with the Roman ways. They were intelligent and ready. They were also proud and revengeful. The Romans too often treated them with scorn, and robbed them of their property, in the provinces of South Germany where Roman arms had conquered.

ARMINIUS was a leader among the German peoples. He had served as a young man in the Roman Armies. He was a student, and became skilled in government and military science.

Arminius was promoted to high rank in the Roman army, but he determined to free his people from the despotism and cruelty of the Roman rulers. As an officer he could make plans with other German soldiers in the Roman ranks, and arrange for a revolution.

At last they were ready. Varus, the Roman Commander, who was sent by the Emperor Augustus, in 9 A. D., to put down a revolt, was attacked in the deep forests.

For three days the Romans fought bravely, but in vain. Arminius had small armies all about on every side, and Varus was defeated. Hardly a Roman was able to escape, and Varus himself was slain.

The blow, thus given by this brilliant, patriotic young German, was so severe that Rome gave up the attempt to subdue the Germans in their native forests and valleys, north of the Danube and east of the Rhine.

THE GERMANS GROW IN POWER

DURING four hundred years after the defeat of Varus, the German tribes lived their rude, simple lives in the wild lands north of the Roman Empire.

According to Roman historians they spent most of their time fighting each other for supremacy, which is probably true.

During this period, however, thousands of these people learned Roman ways, and visited in Roman cities, while thousands more served in the Roman armies.

Rough as they were, the German peoples were intelligent and quick to learn. They saw the weakness of the Romans, and planned to take advantage of it.

About 400 A. D. the Goths felt the pressure of another race from Asia, the

Huns. These Huns were moving westward into the German lands. They moved in vast squadrons on horseback, and fought even more fiercely than the Germans themselves.

So the Goths, under Alaric, pushed down into Greece. After plundering there with excellent profits, they went over into Italy. The Roman armies were now too weak to withstand his forces, so Alaric swept straight on to Rome, and in 410 captured that city.

The East Goths, and the West Goths, all German tribes, now planned to divide the lands of the Roman empire in the west, and to make this their home.

About this time, however, their dreaded foe appeared. The Huns, wild, fierce, and restless, led by Attila, a relentless, merciless raider, swept down into the Roman Empire.

It seemed as if no one could withstand the fearful Huns, who left blood and ruin in their track.

At last the Goths and Franks, with

other German tribes, gathered in a vast army, and at Chalons, in Gaul, they defeated Attila, and drove the Huns out of western Europe.

THE BLACK FOREST REGION

Here the German tribes wandered for centuries secure from the Roman legions.

EARLY GERMAN RULERS

AFTER the retreat of the Huns the Goths continued to extend their power in southern Europe.

Theodoric, a Goth, or German, as we shall call him hereafter, made himself master of the Italian peninsula. He overcame Adoacer and every other rival in the field.

For fifty years, 476 to 526, Theodoric controlled affairs in Italy.

The Germans point with pride to this great ruler, who was able to bring into one dominion the broken provinces of Italy, and to rule them so well that quiet and prosperity prevailed.

While Theodoric was ruling in Italy, another German, Clovis, of the Franks, was building his kingdom in Gaul.

There he had a hard struggle, but finally made himself supreme. He put

out of the way, by war, or poison, or some other form of murder, everyone who might be a rival.

This seems today a brutal and cruel form of ambition, but then it was the custom. Competition, among the early Germans, was always settled by battle or murder.

Clovis, cruel as he was, stood high among his fellowmen, and was remembered with honor, because of the greatness and power he brought to his kingdom.

After Clovis and Theodoric died, about 526, nearly three hundred years passed without a great leader among the German people.

In 714 Charles Martel strengthened his nation by waging successful war against the Arabs in Spain, and other tribes, who threatened the safety of the Germans.

The campaign of Charles prepared the way for a still more important ruler, Pepin. Pepin overcame the Lombards, who threatened the safety of the pope, and gave the pope great tracts of land in

Italy that he took from the Lombards. Pepin organized into one realm the territory of north Italy, France and south Germany. He left this kingdom in good order to a son, Charlemagne, who became one of the great rulers of history.

Theodoric, who controlled Italy, Clovis, who reigned in France, and Pepin, who ruled a large part of both countries, were all of German blood, but Charlemagne is the first ruler we may call the King of Germany, because he extended his realm up into that land known as Germany today.

CHARLEMAGNE

68 TO 814

The Saxons were warlike, proud, powerful. They lived in large tribes among the forests and marshes of Germany. Some had gone over into England, conquering the Britons there, and establishing homes.

To conquer these Saxons, Charlemagne fought more than thirty years. When they were beaten in battle, the Saxons would hide in the forests till they found a chance to strike back.

They had no towns nor cities, nor even dwellings of any value, and Charlemagne had to follow them about in the wilderness.

"I will conquer these people if I have to drive them into the sea," he cried.

The Saxons would keep no treaties of peace, and more than once murdered

envoys of peace sent to them by Charlemagne.

At this he roused himself, raised a great army, and slaughtered thousands of their best warriors.

The Saxons were forced to submit. Gradually Charlemagne built roads into their forests, made towns, and public improvements, and sent missionaries from the Church of Rome.

The Saxons were stubborn but not stupid. When they came to know Charlemagne, and to understand what he planned, they changed their minds.

"We thought this king meant to kill our men and take our wives and children into slavery," they said. "But he helps us to build better homes. He protects us from our enemies. He selects our best men for governors. In winter we used to starve and freeze. Now we can be warm and eat."

The vast empire brought together by Charlemagne was the result of service like this. He had a deep and sincere love

for his people. After he had conquered, he made friends of those who had been his enemies.

When he came to die he sent for his favorite son.

“Will you fear God, care for the Church, love your people like your children, aid the poor, appoint honest, God-fearing officers, and live an upright life?”

“I will,” answered his son, weeping.

“Then put on this crown, and may you remember your promise.”

So ended the great king who gathered the scattered tribes, and had made the German nation a unit.

Although these people drew apart into various combinations after that time, it was Charlemagne that laid the foundation on which the German nation now stands.

GERMANY DIVIDED INTO STATES

After Charlemagne, no king had the power to hold his great empire together.

France soon became a separate kingdom, never again to be ruled by the Germans.

Italy was considered to be part of the German Empire for centuries after this, but most of the time her great cities were ruled by princes who lived there, and conducted affairs in their own way.

In that central region now called Germany, several rulers gained power over large domains, and became electoral princes.

These electoral princes, or electors, had the right to vote for the emperor. A powerful leader might force them to appoint his son to succeed him as emperor, but they went through the form of an election, and frequently could say just who the next emperor should be.

The electors in Germany, like the great lords in France, had more power when the emperor was weak, and less power when the emperor was strong.

In Germany, however, there appeared no line of Capets to unify the kingdom, and long after the French were a strong, centralized nation, the German princes were battling among themselves for land and leadership.

A LAKE IN NORTHERN ITALY

The early Germans coveted these lovely lands, and fought bitterly to win them.

HENRY I

919

For a hundred years after his death, the descendants of Charlemagne served as emperors with small success. Then the sceptre passed into the hands of a Saxon, Henry I, called the Fowler.

Henry I was a king of great energy and shrewd judgment. He won the various electors to his ideas, and was able to raise

Henry I at once began
ify the German terri-

to remember that at
enry I took Alsace and
nce. These provinces
were even then in hot dispute between
France and Germany.

The northern part of Germany was
developed, the frontier was fortified.

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GERMANY IN THE CRUSADES

1100 TO ABOUT 1300

Many kings followed Henry I, as emperors of Germany, or the Holy Roman Empire, as they liked to call it; but little occurred to change the condition of things until about 1100, when the holy crusades began.

The Children's Crusade was a wonderful, but sad adventure. Led by priests and monks, and a large boy, called Stephen, thirty thousand German children and twenty thousand children from France, marched away to embark for the Holy Land.

It was thought that pure children might do more than the older people, who had known evil.

Alas! The innocent little ones said good-bye forever to their homes. Thousands died on the road; and thousands more were seized and sold as slaves. Very few lived to return and tell of their sufferings.

When they realized what had happened to their children, the people were frantic with grief and rage. For generations sad and awful tales were told of the Children's Crusade.

No country was more greatly influenced by the Crusades than Germany. Here, as in France, thousands of turbulent, warlike nobles went off to Palestine, and returned no more.

Thousands of sober, industrious citizens at home gained rights and opportunities they had never before enjoyed.

The Crusaders returning from their travels brought back new ideas and fresh ambitions. They had met people far more advanced than they in the arts of civilized life. They saw, for the first time, cities with handsome buildings, and streets, and water supplies.

They came in touch with people who read and wrote, and painted pictures, and carved in marble, and wove beautiful cloth on wonderful looms.

Contact with such life made a deep impression on the Germans, as it did on the French, and a desire for new and better ways of life and thought began to stir in German breasts.

All through western Europe the Crusades, while they seemed to have the saving of the Holy Land for their cause and aim, were really the expression of a people rising from a long period of mental darkness.

These people began to awake. They longed for adventure and for change. The Crusades gave scope for such ambitions, and led them out into a world that roused still deeper longing to be free.

FREDERICK BARBAROSSA

AMONG the emperors who rose to renown during the Crusade period, Frederick Barbarossa, or Red Beard, gained the greatest fame.

Frederick Barbarossa had the qualities which made kings great. He was strong, handsome, and genial. He also had courage, and the will to act quickly as his decisions were made.

One serious mistake kept Frederick Barbarossa from building the united fatherland of German states which he hoped to complete. This mistake was his unbridled ambition to rule all the old Holy Roman Empire of Charlemagne, which included Italy.

This effort took Frederick into Italy during many years, when he should have been looking after affairs in Germany. The heat and pestilence in that land cost

him thousands of his best soldiers. His absence from Germany allowed turbulent princes there to break down his organized work, and kept provinces apart which should have been united.

Frederick Barbarossa was the revengeful king who levelled the walls of Milan in 1163, and left her people without a roof to shelter them.

At last the currents of the Crusades caught Frederick Barbarossa, as they had caught so many princes, and swept him out to the Holy Land, where he fought gloriously.

There he fell into a river near Tarsus, the birthplace of Paul the Apostle. The icy water from the hills chilled him, and he drowned before help could come.

In spite of his many mistakes and his many enemies, Frederick Barbarossa made himself the most powerful and most respected king in Europe. He brought many petty dukedoms together into larger units, and he established order and security in the life of the common people.

THE TARTAR INVASION

1200 TO 1250

WHILE thousands of soldiers were off on the Crusades, a new peril threatened the very existence of Germany. The great and terrible Genghis Kahn led a horde of Tartars westward from their home on the steppes of Asia.

In 1215, while Genghis Kahn himself was conquering China and Persia, his son led an army into Europe. These Tartars were much like the Huns, who had swept over Europe in the fifth century. They left death and ruin everywhere behind them.

In spite of frantic efforts to repel their hordes, the Tartars desolated the lands farther and farther west, until they had passed the Danube. Then their emperor died, the kingdom gradually broke up, and Germany was saved from destruction.

REVOLT OF THE SWISS CANTONS

1300 TO 1315

AFTER the Crusades, a new spirit woke here and there in Germany. In the mountains the people of the Swiss cantons had been brought under the rule of Austria.

Finding that the Swiss were growing more and more independent and restless, the emperor placed over them as governor a stupid, tyrannical nobleman, named Gessler.

"I will tame these wild mountaineers, and make them come at your call," promised Gessler.

For a time the Swiss obeyed the orders of this tyrant, but the more he secured, the more he demanded.

At last, according to the old-time story, he put his hat in the market place of Altdorf.

"Now," he commanded, "let every peasant who passes by bow down to this hat, and remember the power of Austria."

Before long William Tell, the best marksman in the mountains, came through the market place with his boy.

He saw the hat, but refused to bow down before it.

"Arrest him!" cried Gessler.

"Now, knave," he went on, "we will tie your boy to yonder tree. Place an apple on his head, and shoot an arrow through it. Shoot well, for if you miss the mark your boy must die."

Tell trembled, partly from rage.

"I fear not your arrow, father," cried the lad. "Do not tie me to a tree. I shall not stir a finger. You never miss."

Tell knew he must shoot, or the boy would be killed, so he took careful aim. The arrow sped true. The apple fell in halves at the boy's feet.

As Tell was set free, an arrow fell from his coat.

"What was that for?" asked Gessler.

"To kill thee, tyrant, had I hurt my boy."

"Bind him," ordered Gessler.

Then fearing the crowds that began to gather, he took him, bound, in an open boat, intending to cross the lake.

But a storm broke. Gessler knew little of boating, and was helpless in the raging wind.

Cutting the rope that bound Tell, he ordered him to guide them to the shore.

Tell skilfully steered the boat to a lonely point, jumped to a rock, and with the same movement, pushed the boat out into the waves.

After drifting down the shore, Gessler finally made his way again to land. He left the boat, and was about to enter the forest, when he fell dead with an arrow in his heart.

Tell hastened through the mountains, rousing his comrades. They swore never again to submit to the commands of foreign rulers. Gessler's palace was destroyed. The Austrian soldiers were

driven out, and the banner of the Swiss Confederation was unfurled.

Many a bloody battle has been fought, but the Swiss have never lowered that banner to this day .

THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE

WHILE the brave Swiss were fighting for their freedom, another confederation was growing, about 1200, upon the shores of the North Sea, across from England.

To protect themselves and their trade from pirates and robber barons, who infested sea and shore, a group of cities bound themselves together in a league. These cities cared little about politics or kingdoms. They had the single aim of developing trade, and protecting the traders.

As their success became clear, one city after another joined the Hanseatic League until more than fifty important cities in north and central Germany had become members.

The league established trading centers in Denmark, England, Sweden, Russia and France. Almost every flag that

floated over a merchant ship, from the English Channel to Russia, was the flag of the Hanseatic League.

So closely did they unite their interests, and so firmly did they hold together, that for many years these cities had far more power than many German princes.

England, and other northern countries, made trade treaties with them, and they had a great influence in upholding the prestige of Germany and developing her resources.

As the northern countries developed, many of these cities gradually lost their power and independence, but a few, Hamburg among them, remained independent states until 1871, when they joined with the other states in forming the German Fatherland.

THE GUILDS

FOR several centuries after the Crusades, trade and the crafts developed rapidly in Germany, and, while the nobles were constantly fighting each other, the common people were steadily and industriously adding to their own wealth and that of their country.

As the members of those engaged in weaving, in shoe making, in hat making, and the other trades, increased, those engaged in each trade joined in societies called guilds.

These guilds were something like the trade unions of today, but all workers in each trade, both masters and servants, belonged to the organization.

The guilds had strict rules for apprentices, who must serve several years without pay. They fixed standards of quality, and punished those who did poor work.

Thus the guild protected both producer and consumer. With its power to buy to advantage, and sell to advantage, its social events, and its wide service to all members, the guild embraced most workers in the trades during the middle ages, and proved a source of wealth and strength throughout western Europe.

JOHN HUSS

DURING many generations there had been a contest between the Emperors of Germany and the Popes of Rome. Both wished to be considered supreme.

Sometimes, when the pope was a great man, he would exercise the authority, and then again a strong emperor would secure domination.

In matters of religion, the doctrines taught by the Church of Rome had, up to the time of the Crusades, been accepted throughout Germany without much question.

The contact of the Crusaders with people of other races and other religions, however, brought about new points of view and various questions.

John Huss was a renowned scholar, rector of the Bohemian University of Prague. He discussed many of these

questions, and arrived at conclusions not in accord with certain of the doctrines of the Roman Church.

The preaching of Huss caused criticism on the part of the authorities of the Roman Church, who demanded that the preacher be punished as a heretic.

In 1414, the emperor ordered that Huss appear for trial before a Church Council. The emperor gave Huss a written paper to assure his safety while at the trial.

The Council found John Huss guilty of heresy, and sentenced him to be burned. Then John Huss showed his "safe conduct" by the emperor. The emperor took the ground, however, that "no faith is to be kept with heretics."

So John Huss was thrown into the dungeon, and soon after was burned as a heretic. His death caused fierce indignation in Bohemia and throughout Germany. Hundreds of nobles in Germany signed a paper declaring, in defiance of the Roman Church, that the doctrines of Huss must be freely taught.

The friends of Huss in Bohemia brought together an army of Hussites. These avengers marched through Bohemia to Austria, destroying many convents and monasteries.

The emperor who had betrayed Huss, and who marched out to oppose the Hussites, was defeated, just escaping with his life. The Hussite war continued for sixteen years, and the advantage rested with the Hussites. Thousands of people lost their lives, and the Church was despoiled of much property.

At last, wearied of the contest, the emperor begged for peace, and concessions were made which allowed greater freedom of faith.

GUTENBERG INVENTION OF PRINTING

1450

WHILE, during the centuries after the Crusades, from 1300 to 1600, kings and princes were fighting and playing politics all over Europe, great men were rising from the ranks of those who had no titles.

In 1450, John Gutenberg brought about, through the use of movable type, a development of printing that made greater changes, and advanced the world more than all the kings and nobles of his generation.

Until the days of Gutenberg only a few could read. Almost all learning was confined to the priests and monks. Many kings had to sign state papers with seals, as they could not write their names.

In the souls of thousands a new ambition had been aroused, a new desire

to know about the world and their brothers in other lands.

But how should they satisfy this longing? There were few who could teach them. Books were made by monks with pen and ink, and cost more than a peasant could earn in ten years. •

John Gutenberg won the credit for helping to satisfy this craving, and bestowing a true blessing on his fellowmen. With type he could print many copies of a book so clearly that students could read with ease, and so cheaply that thousands could now own books.

So great was the demand for books that within fifty years hundreds of master printers were at work in Germany, and hundreds more were spreading into other parts of Europe.

The art of printing ended the days when the people must believe what they were told. Events after this followed rapidly. By one step after another the races of western Europe rose to freedom.

While away at school, Martin Luther was given a good home and motherly care by Mrs. Cotta, in Elmenach.

MARTIN LUTHER

As Germany grew in wealth and population, the rivalry between emperors and popes became keener and more bitter. The popes were anxious to increase the influence of the church in all lands. The erection of splendid buildings to adorn the city of Rome, and the carrying on of expensive wars, in connection with the territories under control of the pope, required vast sums of money.

Complaints arose that too much gold and silver were going out of the country, thus leaving the empire poor. The German people felt that they could use this money in their own land, and they resented more and more seeing it go to Italy.

The sermons of Huss, and the books that Gutenberg made possible, gradually aroused the German people. Radical

changes in thought and life spread rapidly through her growing cities. People began to show a disposition to think for themselves and form their own opinions.

There is a saying that large bodies move slowly. The largest body of that day was the Roman Catholic Church. The spiritual followers of the pope, spread throughout Europe, were far more numerous than the subjects of any one king or emperor. These millions of the Catholic faith belonged, not to one race, but to many races.

For many centuries the teaching of the Bible had been given out to these people in sermons. Books were very costly, because they were all written or printed by hand. They were often chained to walls or stone pillars, so they could not be carried away; just as directories and telephone books are fastened today in public places.

As it took years of labor for a monk to make one copy of the Bible, those who wished to read it were obliged to go to

the monastery or library, where it was closely guarded. Moreover, the monks always wrote the Bible in Latin, because the few people who were educated all read that language.

With the invention of the printing press by Gutenberg, books became cheaper and more common. Men also began to print books in the German language.

About this time there lived in Germany a monk named Martin Luther. Because of ideas which he had, and changes which he started, Luther stands out as one of the most prominent personages in German history. No king or emperor has had a greater influence on the history of Germany, in the past four hundred years, than this man who first attracted attention as a simple monk.

Martin Luther believed that the Bible should be printed in German, so the common people might learn to read it. As long as the printing press could produce books in quantities, he thought people ought to have Bibles in their

homes, so he determined to translate the Testament into German.

The custom of having only priests and monks read the Bible, because they were the only persons who knew how to read, had lasted for so many hundreds of years, that no one before Luther seems to have thought of a Bible written in any other language than Latin.

About this time a monk came through Wittenburg, "selling indulgences." Indulgences were printed forms, issued in the name of the Pope of Rome. They promised forgiveness to sinners who would repent and perform pious acts.

Martin Luther, who considered himself a loyal son of the Church, was shocked to see the Pope's indulgences thus peddled through the street. He determined to protest, and nailed to the church door a paper, which attacked the actions of the monk.

Those of the clergy most familiar with these events, assure us that Luther was not the first nor the only one who protested thus. When he nailed to the

church door, which served as a blackboard for the University, his arguments against peddling indulgences through the streets, he intended merely to offer an academic challenge for a debate on the matter.

Much to Luther's surprise, the paper he nailed up caused wide-spread excitement; and in a few days his arguments were copied in German and discussed all over the land.

Now the bishops and cardinals were aroused against Luther. They declared that he must be prevented from assailing the doctrines of the Church.

But Martin Luther would not retract what he had said. As the discussion grew more heated, and new thousands took part, a great council, or diet, was called at Worms, to settle the difficulty. Luther accepted the orders of the council, and went to Worms. His friends warned him of his danger and recalled the fate of Huss, but he feared neither torture nor death.

After a long debate he was convicted

of heresy, for he still held firmly to his faith.

“Here I stand,” he declared, “As God is my help I cannot do otherwise.”

The Diet at Worms ordered all Luther’s writings to be burned, and forbade all people to quote his teachings, but they spread rapidly throughout the land. The terrible results that followed the execution of Huss caused the authorities to hesitate before burning Luther as a heretic, but his friends insisted that he retire to a safe retreat.

For some years, therefore, Martin Luther lived quietly in seclusion, working on his new Testament. Word by word he set it down in the best and simplest German he could find. When the work was finished, Luther presented his country not only with a faithful text of the Testament, but a fine type of pure German language. Luther’s Testament constitutes the foundation of modern German.

Martin Luther wrote and preached for forty years, dying in 1546 at the age of 63.

THE THIRTY YEARS WAR

1618 TO 1648

AFTER the death of Martin Luther, those who had joined him in protesting against the old order of things found life more and more unhappy. The emperor, seeing thousands of his subjects in the Protestant ranks, decided that it was time to bring them back into the fold of the Catholic Church.

The princes, as they did in the Huguenot wars of France, joined sides as they thought their principles or profits led them. Gradually the situation grew worse and worse.

The working classes all over southern Europe had now gained just enough knowledge to make them suspicious and violent. Thousands demanded new freedom in religion and politics. The Catholic party fought to maintain its control, and

other thousands, with no religious grounds at all, joined the strife to gain what they could.

It was a century of religious war, and the Thirty Years War, that broke out in Germany in 1618, just before the Pilgrims fled to America, was the most terrible conflict that ever wasted a European country.

The Thirty Years' War began in Germany between the rival Protestants and Catholics, but soon it spread. Denmark, when she saw the Protestants in danger, joined their cause. She helped them with some success, but soon they were again on the verge of ruin.

The Scandinavian States had very promptly accepted the doctrines of Luther. Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden was keenly interested in the Protestant reform. For several years he watched events while he was organizing his forces for action.

In 1630, with the approval of his Council, and of the whole country, he declared war for the protection of the

Protestant faith. To the Swedish people he said: "The Emperor of Germany has wronged our country. The oppressed states of Germany call for our aid, which, by God's help, we will give them. I bid you all an earnest, it may be an eternal, farewell."

The noblest and best soldier of his age, Gustavus Adolphus led his army into Germany to help the Protestants. Almost alone among the commanders of the time, he forbade looting of all kinds. He saw to it that the soldiers were regularly paid and properly fed.

When this was understood by the German people, they opened to him the gates of their cities. When they saw him win victory after victory, the Protestants flocked to his standards, and his army of invasion was kept strong.

"With the sword in one hand and mercy in the other, he traversed Germany as a conqueror, a lawgiver, and a judge. The keys of towns and fortresses were delivered to him as to a native sovereign.

For a time nothing checked his victorious career."

What great things Gustavus Adolphus might have done for Germany and the Protestant cause, had he lived, can only be guessed. After a series of wonderful victories, and two years spent in healing the wounds of a bleeding country, this generous, heroic king was killed in 1632, and the Protestants were left without a leader.

Wallenstein was the great general on the Catholic or Imperial side, and with Gustavus gone, he now won success. Wallenstein was little like Gustavus. He was cruel and avaricious. Wherever his armies went, the country was devastated, and the property of friend as of foe was taken.

Wallenstein grew so rich from his terrible campaigns that his income was many times that of the emperor. His ambition knew no bounds, and at last it was feared he intended to desert the Catholic cause.

One night armed men stole up to his chamber by a secret stairway, and killed him before he could call for help.

After the death of Wallenstein, the war gradually wore itself away. In the end Germany was desolate. Her best people were dead. Her fields were wild land. Her cities were smoking ruins.

But with the desolation there came to Germany freedom and opportunity. Old ties were broken. Old principalities and kingdoms united in new bonds of interest. The very ruin of 1650 helped in many ways the formation of the united Fatherland that was to come.

THE GREAT ELECTOR

The end of the Thirty Years' War was also the end, in fact, if not in form, of the German, or "Holy Roman" Empire. A waste of unused land and destroyed towns was left to the emperor of Germany, and his total revenue was less than the income of a prosperous merchant today.

From now on each little state of the empire was to struggle for its own existence.

Brandenburg was a large state in northern Germany, with Berlin for its capital city. The whole extent of Brandenburg had been laid waste by the armies, not once, but several times.

In 1640, as the war was dying away, a young man of twenty, Frederick William, known later as The Great Elector, inherited the throne of Brandenburg,

which was a barren waste. This was a hollow and dreary prospect for a brilliant, thoughtful youth.

Yet Frederick William set manfully to work. Other princes followed the fashion of Louis XIV, and spent every coin they could wring from their people in pleasure and display. Frederick William gave his whole attention to making life happier for his people and restoring order in his distracted state.

During some years spent in Holland Frederick William had learned that civil and religious freedom make for prosperity.

"My people shall be happy; they shall be prosperous, or I shall die ashamed," he declared.

Agriculture increased. Waste lands were brought into fertility. Schools were built. Throngs of immigrants from other lands, when they heard how well Frederick William treated his subjects, flocked to Brandenburg.

As education and order increased, those who wished to live by pillage disappeared,

while the number of those who wished to live by labor increased greatly. Among those valued workers were twenty thousand from France, who fled when Louis XIV began to persecute the Protestants.

When Frederick William died, in 1688, he had no reason to be ashamed of his life as a ruling prince.

He left a people more happy, more prosperous, more contented than the citizens in any other German state, a kingdom out of which the dream of centuries was soon to grow.

FREDERICK I OF PRUSSIA

FREDERICK, son of the Great Elector, must be remembered for one important act.

Prussia was in 1688 simply a province dependent on Brandenburg.

The emperor of Germany offered to give Frederick, elector of Brandenburg, the title of king, if he would help him fight the French.

Frederick was ready to accept the offer, but an old custom forbade an elector of Brandenburg to be king also.

For this reason Frederick changed his title altogether. He went over into Prussia, and was crowned in Konigsburg King of Prussia.

Thus the name of Prussia, little known before 1688, became important, because it gave its name to all the estates that were ruled by Frederick.

FREDERICK WILLIAM I

THE son of the first King of Prussia, and grandson of the Great Elector, whose name was also Frederick William, at once began to do many things his grandfather would have wished, when he became king.

Upon his coronation, in 1714, he cast aside every extravagance, and every wasteful method that had crept into the growing kingdom of Prussia.

“Every hand is waiting to snatch our wealth. Our people must be trained to understand their real needs and to protect themselves,” he declared.

With watchful care Frederick William I administered the increasing revenues, so that large sums became available for state improvements. While other monarchs were spending millions in extravagant festivities and display, that impoverished

their people, Frederick William I built roads and canals and bridges. He stimulated trade and industry in every way.

When thousands of artisans, driven from their home country by poverty and religious persecution, sought shelter, he provided them with lands, and promised all freedom to worship as they wished.

Above all other state institutions was the army. Prosperous, wealthy Prussia would be like a fat goose in a dog kennel, without a strong army to protect her borders. War for conquest and revenge seemed at that time to be the great occupation of nearly all the rulers of Europe.

From his coronation in 1714, to his death in 1740, the rough, uncultured Frederick William I, the second king of Prussia, made the army his chief hobby. He gave to its personnel and its discipline more and more attention as time went on, until the Prussian regiments aroused the admiration and respect of all Europe.

When he died in 1740, this rough drill-master, who had ruled as an absolute

despot, left to his son a strong, unified kingdom, a full treasury, a people trained to industry and frugality, and a splendid army, perfectly equipped for war.

FREDERICK THE GREAT

1740

FREDERICK the Great was a young man who had suffered much from the stern, harsh rule of his father. The boy was studious, musical, artistic. He was fond of literature and philosophy. The old king, his father, had turned the palace into a camp, with constant drill, drill, drill.

It was a bitter regret to the father that young Frederick loved arts better than drill. He even threatened to shoot the lad's instructors if he found them in the palace.

When the young prince became king, in 1740, the rulers in Europe said to themselves: "We shall not need to worry now about that Prussian army. This Frederick will spend his time in study and frivolity. But a surprise was in store for Europe.

In 1745, Charles VII, Emperor of Austria, died, leaving the Imperial crown to his daughter, Maria Theresa. The German princes, including Frederick of Prussia, had agreed to accept her as the rightful heir of her father's domains.

North of Austria, lying between that nation and Prussia, was the Austrian province of Silesia, which the Prussians had long desired to secure.

Frederick the Great had a well organized army ready for war. On the throne of Austria was a woman, inexperienced in war.

One night a great ball was held in Berlin, which Frederick attended in state, but from which he slipped quietly away.

Two days later the Prussian king crossed the borders of Silesia, and began what is known as the war of the Austrian Succession.

The other European powers, while criticizing the action of the "wicked King of Prussia," hastened to secure a share of the spoils. Austria was at once assailed

by the forces of France, Spain, and other states, whose rulers helped to secure some portion of the Queen's territories.

But Maria Theresa was an able and energetic woman, and she fought fiercely to protect her own lands.

England and Holland, seeing her success, thought it wise to help her, so Austria was able to protect herself and save a large part of her territory.

Frederick the Great, in the end, after a campaign that proved him one of the best generals of modern times, retained Silesia, in spite of the protests of Maria Theresa.

He had now added a large, valuable territory to his kingdom, which reached down into the heart of Germany, and Prussia had become so strong that Austria alone could compete with Frederick the Great for the German leadership.

Frederick realized that from now on he must make every effort to protect the lands he had seized, for Maria Theresa could never forget nor forgive the capture of Silesia; and the rest of Europe watched

him with a jealous eye. Showing the greatest energy, he developed his new kingdom, with the single aim of making his people prosperous and strong.

Frederick the Great worked day and night to keep in touch with every detail of his government. Even Louis XIV of France was no more despotic than he; but Frederick earnestly labored to bring prosperity to every citizen, high and low.

Frederick even loaned his war horse to poor peasants to aid them in plowing.

Seeing this self-sacrifice on the part of their king, the people of Prussia willingly did as he asked, and bent their energies to building up the army, and making strong their borders.

The unity of the new nation was completed by religious toleration. "I mean that every man in my kingdom shall have the right to be saved in his own way," declared Frederick.

Under this liberal rule the people of Silesia quickly joined the Prussians in a true respect and regard for their new king.

THE WALLS OF MOHAMMED

Built nearly a thousand years ago, these walls did good service in the Great War. England and France made desperate efforts to capture Constantinople, but the land forts held them back

After ten years, in 1756, the expected blow fell. Maria Theresa secured the help of France, Russia, and Sweden, and attacked Prussia to regain her lost Silesia.

Then came gloomy days for Frederick the Great. Against overwhelming odds Frederick and his Prussians fought with desperate valor.

His swift action and supreme military genius saved his country from destruction for a time. Then fortune favored his enemies. Even the help of England failed to sustain him against the enemy. His own palace in Berlin was occupied by the foe.

Just as all seemed lost, a new event saved Prussia. The Queen of Russia, who hated Frederick, sent a large army to join with the Austrians in a final crushing blow.

The Russian army was ready to attack, when the queen died. The new Russian king, a friend to Frederick, at once ordered his generals to fight on the Prussian side.

Then Sweden and France made peace, and the war ended in 1763, with Silesia still a part of Prussia.

Poland, a vast land between Prussia and Russia, was ruled by a group of selfish nobles who had brought Poland into a helpless condition.

Prussia, Austria and Russia now joined in a plan to swallow this helpless nation. This was done very easily, for Poland could not defend herself.

A large part of Poland was now added to Prussia, enabling Frederick the Great to join West Prussia with East Prussia, which had formerly been separated by part of Poland.

Thus Frederick had been able to add greatly to the expanse and wealth of Prussia, by a deliberate attack on a helpless neighbor state.

With wonderful rapidity Frederick repeated in Poland what he had done in Silesia. The land was developed, roads were improved, canals dug, live stock supplied, honest, helpful officials installed,

families moved where they could prosper best, and religious freedom granted.

Soon these people blessed the day they passed from the wretched rule of the Polish princes into the control of Frederick the Great.

After this war the reign of Frederick the Great passed in comparative peace until his death in 1786.

Frederick was not called "The Great" because of his success in war, where he deliberately attacked his neighbors to take their lands away, but because of his wonderful capacity to make his people happy and prosperous.

Other kings in Europe, seeing the rapid rise of Prussia under such intelligent rule, tried to copy his methods, with little success. Their nobles thwarted their best intentions. But no one in Prussia dared thwart Frederick. He was an absolute despot, but apart from his passion for war, he ruled for the good of his people, and lived to make Prussia one of the leading nations of Europe.

PERIOD OF REVOLUTION

1789 TO 1815

HARDLY had Frederick the Great died when the storm burst in France that was to change the face of Europe in many ways.

Frederick William II, who followed Frederick the Great, had little ability to care for Prussia in the turmoil of war. Napoleon, whose leadership began in 1795, carried his victorious armies into all corners of Europe. After a vigorous effort, the German people saw that defence would be impossible. The great Napoleon was too much for them.

For many years the illusion of the German empire had been kept up. The electors had met now and then to go through the form of electing an emperor, who had no power at all.

No one was much interested in this

old worn-out form they still called an empire, but no one knew how to bring it to an end. Historians amused themselves by saying that it was neither Holy nor Roman, nor an Empire.

Now, under the attacks of Napoleon, many of the free, imperial cities along the Rhine, and in West Germany, were combined into larger units. The electors were lost in the shuffle, and never again voted for an emperor.

Austria and Prussia both suffered seriously from the attacks of the French, and it became more and more clear to thoughtful Germans that, if their state was to continue to exist, they must unite with each other in closer bonds of union. The fate of Poland taught them a lesson that was plain for all to learn.

Napoleon conquered every army that opposed him, and finally made peace in 1807, dictating his own terms.

In the peace settlement of 1807 Prussia lost all her Polish territories. She saw half her lands taken away. The wheel

of fortune brought her back to where she had been a century before, and made her a vassal state of France.

Before Napoleon's invasions there were in Germany two great states, Austria and Prussia. There were about twenty states of the second rank, hardly larger than modern cities. There were about two hundred and fifty principalities of the third rank, some no larger than a farm.

Besides these there were hundreds of nobles, each ruling his own palace and lands, many even maintaining little armies. Each had this tax system, and claimed power of life and death over his own few subjects.

Historians say that there were nearly two thousand independent states, great and tiny, crowded into a space about the size of Texas.

Napoleon paid no more attention to these petty rulers than we would pay to flies. He crushed them all, and fitted their holdings into new kingdoms as he pleased.

PRUSSIA LEADS THE WAY

STILL under the dominion of Napoleon, and shrunk to half her former state, Prussia at once took steps that were to lead her back to the front ranks of Germany.

The system of nobility, by which the working classes had been kept almost as serfs, forbidden to rise to anything better, was broken down; and many new privileges came to the people.

Liberal reforms, that brought all classes closer together, were promptly adopted. The people of Prussia were roused to a new pitch of patriotic zeal.

Napoleon forbade Prussia to have a standing army of more than 42,000 men. Under this regulation the Prussians planned to drill 42,000 till they were well trained. Then they took 42,000 new

men and formed another army; while the first returned to civil life.

By this means Prussia had a great number of trained men ready in 1813, to help defeat Napoleon; and won much prestige in Europe.

Prussia continued this plan of training men to fight, from that time on, and made her army the very heart and center of her national ambitions.

The French Revolution of 1789 woke the people of Germany to new ideas of freedom. The young men all through the German states demanded an opportunity to share in the government.

Rule by the king and his nobles was denounced by thousands of young students as unfair to the people and harmful to the state.

In various German states plans were made, and promises secured from the princes, to carry out reforms that would give these ambitious citizens a chance to share in the government.

When, after Waterloo, the iron grasp of

Napoleon was lifted from Germany, the kings and princes forgot most of their promises.

In Prussia and Austria especially, where the monarchs had pledged themselves to large reforms, little was done, and the kings settled down again to rule by royal power.

Prussia failed to carry out her promises of reform in politics, but in other ways her people gained far more than the French, who secured a constitution and a form of political freedom.

Led by Prussia, the German states in 1842 joined in a customs union that greatly increased the prosperity of all, and made the Germans see more clearly than ever the advantages of uniting in one empire.

As years went on, the desire for union, and also for political freedom, grew more intense. One after another the southern states granted constitutions, and forms of popular government. Still Austria and Prussia held out.

PRUSSIA GRANTS A CONSTITUTION

1848

THE year 1848 saw changes and revolutions throughout Europe. France drove out her king, Louis Philippe. The tide of popular demand for the rights of the people was rising fast.

In Berlin Frederick William IV found crowds before his palace, who demanded that the old promises be kept. He waited, delayed, postponed; but the people refused to wait longer.

Arms were brought. Shots were fired. From his palace window Frederick William IV saw hundreds of his subjects borne away dead or dying.

"Stop!" he cried. "The time has come. The rights they demand shall be granted."

A constitution was framed which gave the Prussian people the right to elect

representatives, and to help in making laws. Their power was still very small, and that of the king was very great, but they accepted the reform as an improvement over old conditions.

At this time a serious effort was made to form a federation of German states, which should bind them into a Fatherland. Conventions were called, and diets were held, but jealousy and misunderstanding kept these efforts from bringing the hoped-for results.

BISMARCK

The revolution of 1848 brought a man into prominence who, for many years, was destined to be the greatest figure in Germany.

Count Bismark believed in the rule of kings, and in a great army to maintain the royal authority.

“We are surrounded by foes who wish our downfall. Men and arms, blood and iron, will decide our fate. How else can we win our place in the world than with a powerful army, directed by a king who can decide instantly, and who has the power to enforce decisions?”

This argument had great weight. The Prussian people remembered only too well how nearly they had been destroyed by the French. They recalled the fate of Poland. They knew the hostility of Austria.

Much as they wanted freedom and peace, they wanted life and safety more. Much as they hated the rule of Bismark, they dreaded still more the rule of France or Austria.

In Prussia, therefore, the king retained his power, and the army, the symbol of defence and victory, was accepted as the foundation of the state.

In 1862, Bismark was sent to Paris, as ambassador. There he learned the plans and ambitions of Napoleon III, and he became convinced that the Emperor had designs on the territory of Germany.

Bismark also went to Russia, and Austria, and returned more determined than ever to make the Prussian army the most powerful in the world.

"That alone can save us from destruction," he declared.

Beyond all other ambitions, Bismark held high hope of uniting all the German states into one empire, under the leadership of Prussia.

WAR WITH DENMARK

1864

By 1864 a new king had come to Prussia, William I, son of Frederick William III, who had been conquered by Napoleon. William trusted greatly in Bismark, and made him chancellor of the kingdom.

Just south of Denmark lay two states, Schleswig and Holstein. The King of Denmark said they belonged to him. The people of these states were partly German, and their sympathies were divided. France helped stir them up. A revolution broke out, and the king of Denmark ended by annexing the two provinces to his kingdom.

At this Bismark induced Austria to join Prussia in an attack on Denmark. He was eager to try his army in actual war.

All went just as Bismark had planned. His soldiers proved themselves all he had hoped. Denmark was quickly defeated, and Schleswig and Holstein were yielded to Prussia and Austria.

QUEEN LOUISE AND HER SONS

The boy on the left became William I, and took terrible revenge for the hardships Napoleon I inflicted on his lovely mother.

WAR WITH AUSTRIA

The next play in this program was to settle accounts with Austria.

The Prussian leaders knew that the issue must be fought out. They knew the power of their army, for every Prussian citizen was trained and ready.

Every detail of preparation was exact, every route to Austria and France, was known yard by yard. Every soldier knew in advance just what he must do and was ready to obey.

The rest of Europe knew little of this tremendous force. France was considered superior, and Austria fully equal to Prussia in a contest of arms.

A dispute over the newly acquired land was easily developed into a war. By a promise of Venice, Bismark got Italy to attack from the south, while Prussia pounced upon Austria from the North.

Again all went as he had hoped. Austria was defeated so quickly that all Europe was dumbfounded.

In the treaty that followed, Austria was excluded from German affairs. The old confederation was dissolved. Prussia became the head of a new federation of north German states, and annexed both Schleswig and Holstein.

Europe now began to see the plan and power of Prussia. The skill of Bismark, and the efficiency of the Prussian army, had changed the face of Europe.

GENERAL PERSHING, GENERAL FUCH, AND KING GEORGE

WAR WITH FRANCE

1871

THE French were furious at the unexpected results of the Prussian victory. Napoleon III had expected a long, bitter struggle, that would weaken both Prussia and Austria, leaving him in a position to extend the boundaries of France well up toward the Rhine.

Now Austria was crushed, and if he gained any of the Rhine lands he coveted, it must be from proud, victorious Prussia.

In Prussia the feeling toward Bismark and his policies was utterly changed. Before the war he had been hated and distrusted. The Prussians had not realized their own strength, and they had dreaded such a war.

Their sudden victory, and great profits, filled them with adoration for Bismark.

His policy of blood and iron now won admiration and support.

Prussia's old-time foe, Austria, was beaten to the ground. Prussia was now the head of a great Federation, and had won riches and territory. It believed itself to be the leading nation in the world.

The people of two great countries now scowled at each other across their boundaries, with mutual distrust, which was rapidly growing into hate.

Neither France nor Prussia seemed to have any idea that it was possible for the two countries to live side by side in peace and prosperity, without a test of arms. Like boys in a country school, they must find out who was master.

In France the war party, led on by Napolion III, stirred up the people by rumors and newspapers. Memories of the Great Napoleon were refreshed, and everything possible was done to win popular support for a war with Prussia.

All these plans were eagerly, though secretly, encouraged by Bismark.

Mysterious reports went back and forth by letter and telegram. The French were led to believe that they could easily crush Prussian pride, as they had done sixty years before.

The Prussian papers, under the control of the war leaders, told the people of the danger from a French attack.

It was not long before Bismark saw with satisfaction the results of his propaganda, which had included some serious misstatements. July 19, 1870, Napoleon III declared war on Prussia, and ordered his army to attack at once.

The French, confused and poorly prepared, moved with what they thought was great speed, to carry war into Prussia.

The Prussians, advancing with the precision of clockwork, were at the boundaries to meet them.

In vain the French armies tried to break through the ring of steel. It was impossible. After a few weeks the whole French force surrendered, and the world saw that Prussia had won another victory.

France fought with desperate courage, after her field armies were destroyed, but at last, with her soldiers gone, and Paris in the hands of the Prussians, she acknowledged defeat.

The Prussians demanded an enormous sum of money, and the province of Alsace-Lorraine.

These lands were of vast importance to Prussia, as iron and coal, greatly needed for her industries, were found there in abundance.

**BISMARCK DICTATES TERMS OF SURRENDER TO THE
FRENCH DEPUTIES**

ONE FATHERLAND AT LAST

In Germany the Franco-Prussian war brought results which Napoleon III had hoped to make impossible. The south German states now believed without question what Bismark had been trying to make them understand.

They saw that their safety and success depended upon unity among all German people. Fulfillment of the hopes German statesmen had held for centuries was now possible.

Every German state, except Austria, promptly joined in the German Empire, a solid, unified confederation, under Prussia. William I, King of Prussia, was crowned at Versailles in 1871, as Emperor of Germany, the truly united German Fatherland.

William I, as a boy, had seen a lovely mother, Queen Louise, die of a broken

heart, after the humiliation of Prussia by the French under Napoleon. It was his fortune to stand, as ruler of a powerful nation, in the very palace at Versailles where Napoleon had lived, and dictate terms of peace to the people of France.

To the people of the new German Empire, the period following their military triumphs brought undreamed of prosperity and power.

Athens, after the defeat of Persia, rose to heights of brilliant achievement seldom seen in this world. So the Germans, with the age-long fear of foes on every side all gone, and with absolute confidence in their power and supremacy, made an astounding advance in resources and in world power.

Philosophers say that we can be what we dare to be; what we will to be. The Germans, uplifted by their dazzling victories, dared all and willed all. In their opinion nothing was too good for the German people.

In industry, in commerce, in popula-

tion, in wealth, and in power, they went forward with amazing strides.

The form of government in the new empire was federal. All the states sent representatives to a large lower house called the Reichstag. Above that was a group of nobles in a senate, called the Bundesrat. At the top was Emperor William I, with the Imperial Chancellor.

The Reichstag had very little power. The representatives could talk, and did talk much and at length, but when they were done talking, the emperor could act as he pleased.

The Emperor appointed all the ministers. As Imperial Chancellor, he retained Bismark, and for nearly twenty years Bismark was the real ruler of Germany.

Realizing that they had no actual part in the government, and that all the real power had been secured by the Kaiser, many citizens protested, and urged reforms that would give them more democracy and freedom.

When these protests became disturbing, Bismark always had the same answer ready.

“What nation is more prosperous than ours?” What people have more power than we have? What made our great army victorious over all our deadly foes? Was it a congress; or a king?

“No, while other nations were discussing and disputing, our great army, with one single head to command it, struck and won its victories.

“Beware! Even now Russia, France, Austria, Italy, England, watch us with jealous eyes. If we weaken the power of our kaiser, we weaken the nation. If we weaken the nation, we are lost.”

The German people always admitted that most of this was true. A majority agreed that it was all true.

“Freedom, and liberty to run the government, may be all right for other people. We have a happier land than theirs. We have better schools, better education, better homes, more wealth,

and more power than our neighbors. We are the leaders of civilization.

“Let us keep our good kaiser, and our strong army, and feel safe against the world.”

William I was a faithful ruler to his people. He earnestly strove to secure for them all possible advantages. Above all he strove to bring wealth and power to the Fatherland.

During the long, splendid reign of Emperor William I, little was done to change the plan of government. When William I died, in 1888, the ruling power rested, under the old-time theory of divine right, in the hands of the kaiser.

THE BATTLE FRONT

A German Officer viewing a French town about to be taken by his army.

WILLIAM II

1888 TO 1918

When William I died, there were increasing thousands who demanded more power for the people, and less for the kaiser.

“It is dangerous to give one man so much power,” they declared. When we ask to take part in affairs they rattle the sword and tell us that France, or Russia is about to attack us.

“That is just to frighten us, and to make us leave the power to the kaiser and his nobles.”

A son of William I ruled a few months. Then he died, and left the throne to William II, a grandson of William I.

Those who had hoped that William II would grant more freedom to the people were disappointed.

William II cherished all the old ideas about the divine right of kings.

THE SODA FOUNTAIN

In the near east the subjects the Kaiser planned to rule buy a glass of liquerise water from the earthen jars. No ice-cream-soda there

"The king's will is the supreme law," he said. "I will take care of my people, and will make them prosperous and powerful."

So the old program of rule by the kaiser went on again.

After the death of William I, in 1888, a new policy began to develop in Germany. Bismark had given all his great powers to make Germany strong. He had made her the greatest nation in Europe. Part of his plan always included peace with England and Russia. He developed, in every way, cordial relations with England.

But while Germany had grown in Europe, England and France had developed colonial empires. France, with colonies in Indo China and North Africa, had possessions of immense value. England had India, Egypt, and many other colonial holdings.

"We also must get world-wide possessions," said the Kaiser.

"That will antagonize England," said Bismark.

“Never mind, our great army will take care of England.”

Finally, the kaiser, finding his will opposed, dismissed Bismark and took the government into his own hands.

Still the march of progress and prosperity moved even faster than before, and great enterprises were undertaken in many directions.

Agriculture was fostered and improved, till the poor German soil produced enough to feed the population.

Science and industry went forward, not in a march, but by leaps and bounds. Sleepy towns awoke to find themselves stirring cities. Manufactures improved and increased.

As manufacturing grew, commerce was developed to keep pace with it. In the markets of the world, German agents, German stores, German ships, became a familiar sight. Trade expanded till even England saw a rival to her supremacy on the sea.

Population increased even faster than

before. When the empire began, Germany had forty one million. In 1914 it had about seventy million.

France, in Napoleon's day, had the largest population of any civilized state in Europe. In 1914 Germany had nearly twice her population, and was increasing at a greater rate.

All the time, notwithstanding their great prosperity, thousands of Germans complained of the Kaiser's domination. The socialists, as they called themselves, grew steadily in numbers and importance.

"This will come to no good," they declared. "There is too much power at the top. The citizens can not even know what is being done with their resources, or what policies are being shaped for the Nation.

We have to do as we are told, like children.

"See our schools. All teachers must teach that the kaiser is the greatest of all men on earth, or they will be dismissed. They must teach the children that all

authority belongs to the kaiser and his nobles, or they will go begging.

“The professors in the colleges must teach the same things if they wish to hold their positions.

“The army is run by the kaiser and his staff. We can have nothing to say. We must all serve our time and be trained as soldiers or be sent to jail.

“From the day we are born, till the day we die, we are led by the nose. We must believe and think and act just as the kaiser says. No, this will come to no good in the end.”

But the majority still believed in the old ways.

“Foreigners who visit us admit that we are the greatest nation on earth,” they replied. “They say our laws are the best, our cities are the cleanest and best governed. We have pensions for the workmen, help for the farmers, help for manufacturers and commerce.

“We have more wealth and more power than any of our neighbors.

“Our kaiser, and our army, have brought us this safety and this prosperity. Someday, when we shall be safe from wicked neighbors, we may reduce our army, and take a larger liberty for the people, but not yet.”

Now and then disputes with Russia or England, or some other country, which might possibly lead to war, were made imposing in the newspapers, which were printed under strict censorship, to show the people how much need there was for the army and the ruling power of the kaiser.

As foreign trade expanded, the kaiser decided that Germany must have a great navy to protect it. So immense sums were at once set aside to build a grand navy, to protect German trade abroad.

At this England was indeed alarmed. What did these Germans intend? Were they planning to crush her also, as they had crushed Denmark, and Austria, and France?

Germany declared that nothing was

farther from her mind, but England trusted little in the word of the kaiser. Actions spoke louder than words. England at once increased her army and her navy.

TOWER OF SAINT JACQUES, PARIS

Shells from a giant German gun, nearly seventy miles away, fell close beside this stately tower.

GERMANY SEEKS WORLD POWER

By 1898 great changes had taken place in Europe. England, seeing clearly that the Kaiser had determined to compete with her upon the sea, strengthened her friendly relations with France.

For years Bismark had held the friendship of England, and had managed to keep France and England apart. Now the Kaiser was losing the friendship of England, while France was gaining English support.

When his ministers warned him of this danger, the Kaiser pointed to his great army, and fast growing navy. "Those will take care of us," was his answer.

Soon Russia sent ministers to London.

"Do you know what Germany is scheming?" they asked. "She plans to move south east. She wants to control a

vast stretch of country through Austria, Turkey, and Persia, clear to India.

"If she does this she will threaten British rule in India, and will menace our control about the Black Sea."

"Yes, we know that is true," replied England. "The Kaiser will stop at nothing short of world control. Let us join in a friendly treaty to support each other, and to defend France, if Germany should attack us."

This was done. Now Germany had three great powers, England, Russia, and France, watching her with suspicion, and growing hostility.

In Germany this was used as a reason for an army and navy still greater than before.

"These nations have surrounded us with an iron ring. They wish our destruction. The good sword of valiant Germany must set her free. Nothing shall crush the hopes and glorious ambitions of the Fatherland."

This was the message of the newspapers,

CONSTANTINOPLE

This wonderful city, that the Kaiser planned to make a German metropolis, is now ruled by a commission and is open to all nations

the topic of the schools, and colleges, throughout Germany, where all were under the direct command of the kaiser.

The outlook of German leaders became wider. Their ambition became vaster and grander. They played for the highest stakes more boldly. As they themselves said, they saw no reason why the Germans, God's chosen people, should not control the world.

But through it all was the idea of dominion, not service. Power and wealth was still the German watchword.

The officers in the German army, who alone knew what was really going on, had now grown so harsh and arrogant that they were hated by the German people themselves. They considered the common people mere animals, and treated them as such.

In every court and capitol of Europe were German officials, seeking to win favor and to allay distrust. But the German voice had now grown too loud to go unnoticed.

They would not be encircled and crushed by any nations. They meant to fulfill their great destiny, and they told the world of this in language that could not be misunderstood.

At last, by 1912, it became clear that war was coming. The alliance between Russia, France, and England did not cause Germany to hold back. She made a close alliance with Austria and Turkey, and she worked hard, without success, to secure the support of Italy.

Ambassadors hurried back and forth. Telegrams flashed over Europe. Armies were mobilized. England made an effort to find some agreement with Germany, but Germany was prepared for war, and was determined upon war, so England's efforts for peace came to nothing.

THE WORLD WAR

1914

PRINCE BISMARCK, in every war, had, with wonderful adroitness, succeeded in making it appear that someone else had started the war.

Now William II tried a similar method.

In the summer of 1914, an Austrian duke was assassinated. Austria charged Servia with the responsibility for the murder, saying that the plot was hatched with the knowledge of the Servian government.

Austria at once made demands on Servia that would really make Servia dependent upon her, if the demands were granted.

Servia stood in the way of the German road to Turkey and the East, where Germany planned to dominate.

"Decline to grant these demands," said Russia. "We will aid you."

"Whatever you see fit to do," said Germany to Austria, "we shall support you." She added, more quietly, "Press your claims and punish Serbia."

"If Germany attacks you," said France to Russia, "We shall be at your side, and England will not permit France to be crushed. She cannot stand back now, for she knows her turn would come, after we had been overpowered."

Then followed a brief period of terrible suspense. Servia agreed to most of the demands, and requested time to consider the others. Austria, under pressure from Berlin, refused, and marched upon Belgrade.

Russia mobilized her forces.

Germany alone was in a position to prevent the coming war. Austria was ready, with Germany's permission, to delay her war measures. But Germany turned a deaf ear to all entreaties, and set her army in motion. In five days,

Germany, Austria, Russia, France, and little Serbia, were at war.

England had sought every means, first, of preventing the war, and secondly, if honorably possible, of keeping out of it.

Germany, in order promptly to reach Paris, invaded Belgium, whose neutrality she had sworn to defend.

"That treaty is only a scrap of paper," calmly declared the German chancellor. "Necessity knows no law."

England had pledged herself to defend Belgium, and there was now no ground for hesitation. On the 5th of August, England declared war against Germany.

The well trained troops of the kaiser destroyed the brave little army of Belgium, and swept on into France. The plan was to crush France first, and then turn on Russia.

But the schemes of the German army staff went a bit wrong. The heroic defence of the forts of Liege, and of several other Belgian cities, delayed the German advance for two weeks.

France secured time to bring her troops to the Belgium frontier.

England was able to get her first army across the Channel.

The mighty German war machine had terrible force. The French and English lines were driven back towards Paris, but at last they held Germany at bay.

Turning new armies to the east, Germany then attacked Russia. Here, after some first checks, she was more successful. The Austrians were badly defeated by the Russians, but the Russian armies farther north were routed by General Hindenberg, and by the close of the second year, the armies of Russia were no longer a fighting force.

Delayed, and held back in the west, Germany still felt hopeful of final victory; but now new forces began to work against her.

To terrify and weaken their enemies, the Germans had waged war without mercy. Not content with the devasta-

tion that is inevitable in a campaign, the German commanders made deliberate destruction in Belgium and in France. Property of all kinds, which they could not carry away, was destroyed. The world began to call them "Huns." Gradually all the nations of the world, except Turkey and Bulgaria, expressed their sympathy with the allies, and a large number of the smaller states came into direct alliance.

Then Germany, in order to starve England and France, began to sink merchant and passenger ships with her submarines, murdering thousands of non-combatants.

At this the antagonism of free countries, like the United States, turned into fierce indignation. Germany's acts were contrary to the laws of nations.

In May, 1915, Italy declared war on Germany. Japan, China, and nearly all the states of South and Central America took similar action.

France and England now fought with

redoubled fury. "Better die than be conquered by brutes that shoot defenceless men, and drown innocent women and children," they said.

The Germans seemed much astonished at the general indignation.

"It may seem cruel now," they answered. "War is cruel at best, and the harsher we make it, the sooner it will be over. Shrecklichkeit is in the end the most merciful method.

"At present you are not willing to accept the domination of Germany. But in the end you will be glad Germany has shown the world her true greatness, and has compelled you to share her wealth and power."

"There are better things than wealth and power," was the reply. "We love freedom more than wealth, and liberty more than a rule that would make us slaves."

But, in spite of her increasing foes, Germany's vast resources, and strong interior position, enabled her to continue

the cruel war with a large measure of success.

Finding that her submarines caused more destruction than her armies, Germany hastened to increase these. To the horror of the world, she now proposed to sink every ship that came to England or France, whether these belonged to the allies or to neutral states.

"If that course is taken," said the leaders in the United States, speaking with the full approval of the Nation, "we also will come into the conflict. The war is now for the defense of civilization against barbarism."

Germany's answer to this was the sinking of the great steamer "Lusitania," causing the death of over a thousand non-combatants, with many women and children. Hundreds of these were Americans. This brutal and foolish act was too much for the patience of America. The President and the people were at one, and in April, 1917, the United States declared war against Germany.

The kaiser still relied on his great armies. "The war will be over before the Americans can do anything to hurt us," he said.

He was mistaken. The United States Navy at once helped to stop the submarines, and that peril grew less and less. Great stores of army supplies were poured into France, and, by the spring of 1918, two million American soldiers were in France, and millions more were on the way or ready to come. The battered lines of the English and French armies were filled up, and their soldiers took fresh heart.

The people of England and France, weary of war, and discouraged as to the outcome, knew not how to express their joy and gratitude.

For Germany, the coming of the Americans marked the end. Against the new troops, well equipped and eager for the fight, her wearied soldiers could not hold their lines. The divisions broke and fell back. They were almost sur-

rounded by the allied armies, and then, in November 1918, Germany sued for peace.

The world's war had lasted four years, and had cost ten million lives.

The military rule of Berlin went to smash before an angry populace. The kaiser had to fly to Holland, where he still lives in exile. The princes, dukes, and all the lords and officers of the old regime, became simple citizens of the Republic of Germany.

The people of Germany, broken, ruined, and made desperate by the long hardships of the war, realized that they, who sought to make all others do their bidding, had brought destruction upon themselves.

Those who still call themselves Austrians are feebly struggling, amid starvation, and the direst poverty, to organize a republic, and return to a condition of self-dependence.

Germany lost, first of all, Alsace and Lorraine, which France again reclaimed with unbounded joy.

Schleswig and Holstein, taken by Bismark and William I in 1864, were in great part returned to Denmark.

To Belgium she had to give a small district of her western land.

To Poland once more restored by the Allies, Germany had to give part of Silesia, won at such cost by Frederick the Great, and those parts of Russia which had been taken from Poland in later years.

The colonial possessions, and great navy, that brought Germany into conflict with the world, were entirely lost. The army, for generations the glory and pride of Germany, must be reduced to a hundred thousand men, just enough to keep order in the nation.

Besides this, Germany was ordered to replace the ships she had sunk, and to pay a great indemnity.

For a few months, in the face of this disaster, it seemed as if Germany were about to split to pieces, and sink into the chaos of anarchy that had engulfed Russia.

Then the strong and solid qualities of the German people saved them from this last peril, as they had been saved in former years.

In the place of the German Empire there appeared a Republic, based on the general form of the Republic of the United States. So far (I am writing in June, 1922) through dangers and attacks by hostile political groups, this republic has held together.

Germany still has a large compact territory. She has a great population of people whose self-confidence and industry are second to none in the world.

To expect that the Germans could forget in a short time the dreams, and towering ambitions they had fostered for years, would be expecting too much.

The Germans had been taught to rely upon a code of morals not accepted by more democratic nations. Solemn promises were to be kept only so long as the good of Germany required. Might became right. Treaties were only scraps

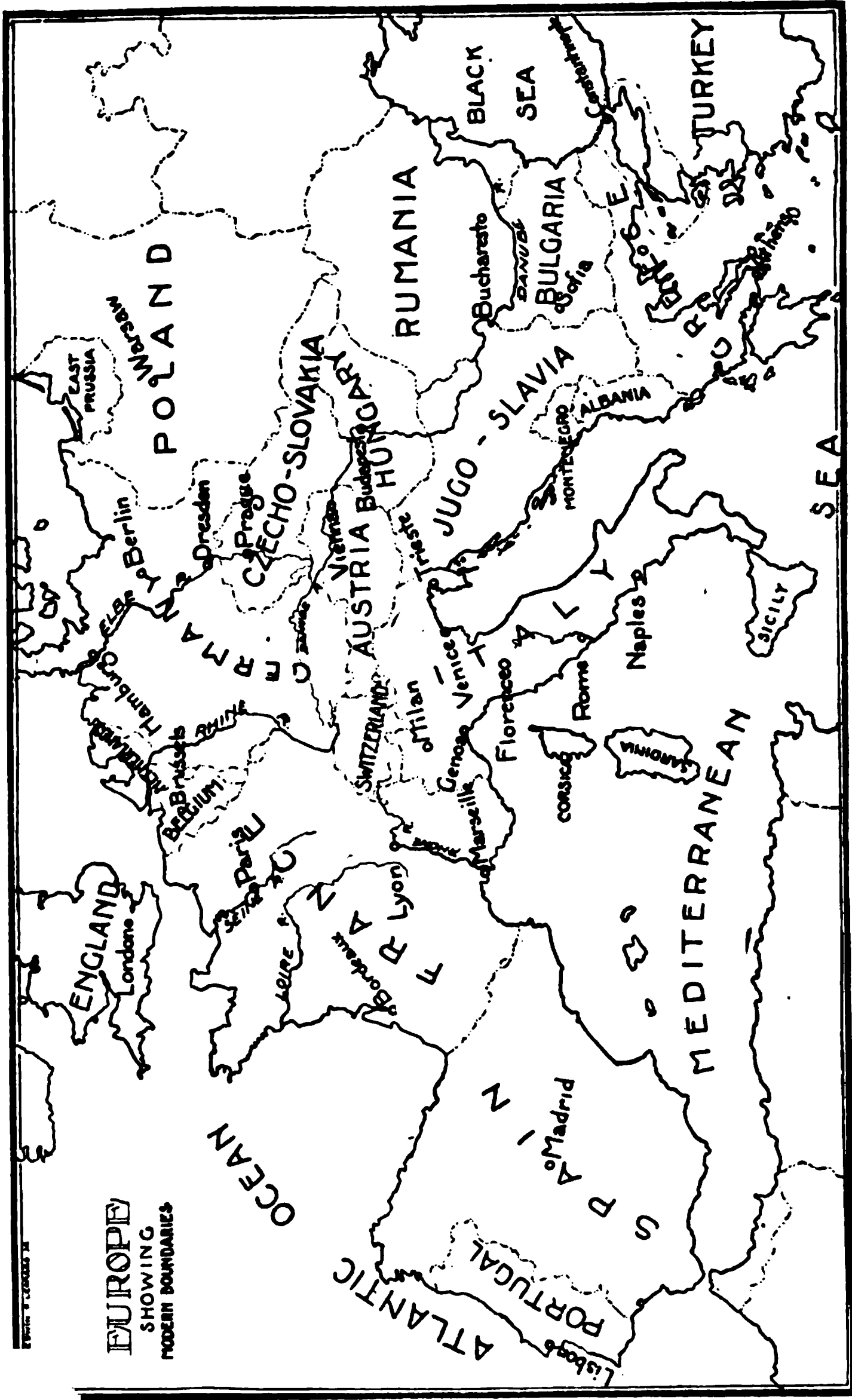
of paper when they stood in the way of world rule for the Germans.

To change the ideals of a people is a slow process. The passion for wealth and power has brought the Germans near to ruin. Like all other nations in history, they have found that domination by force carries the seeds of its own destruction.

There are those in Germany who teach new doctrines, lessons of service and cooperation. Perhaps in time the German people will listen to these prophets, and will change the ideals that have brought them low.

With courage and hope there is no reason why the Germans should not mend their broken fortunes, and become again a strong, rich nation, happy and prosperous within her borders, and at peace with the outside world.

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EUROPE
SHOWING
MODERN BOUNDARIES

